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The Week.

The reported success of Secretary Hay's efforts to obtain a joint international guarantee of the "open door" in China will constitute, if real, a great diplomatic achievement. That the Government has been working for this end has been no secret. The President alluded to the matter in his message, when he said that no infringement of our treaty rights in China had yet occurred, and that the purpose of the Administration was to see that none should occur. That expression suggests the rationale of the affair—to maintain unimpaired our commercial rights in China enjoyed under existing treaties. The danger was, of course, that the successive annexations, or "leases" for ninety-nine years as the wise it call, might have the effect of snuffing out our treaties. China would be disposed still to observe them, but would the European Powers who had taken over Chinese territory? The example of English experience in Madagascar is instructive. When France, not without some diplomatic trickery, suddenly declared Madagascar French territory, instead of merely a French protectorate, British treaty rights of trade in that island were at once extinguished. Lord Salisbury complained, but M. Hanotaux was firm, and the English were left without redress. Mr. Hay foresaw a similar peril to our interests in China, and took steps to forestall it diplomatically.

Mr. Kasson has taken a hand in explaining the French reciprocity treaty. He is naturally displeased at the assertion of the French Government that they got quite the better of him in the bargain. As a matter of fact, he is certain that he worsted them. They were simply in despair at his superior craft and cunning in the negotiation, and at one time ruefully thought of abandoning the whole treaty, which was such a monument of their diplomatic defeat; but finally they concluded to put a bold face on it and tell the Chamber that they had got the better of the wily Americans. Mr. Kasson, however, is not putting a bold face on it when he affirms that he completely outmaneuvered the Frenchmen; he is telling the simple historic truth, and has no thought of influencing the action of the Senate. Truthful James could not be more solemn than he in assuring the troubled California fruit-growers that their interests are dear to his heart, and have not been neglected in the least. But the amusing thing about all this, as about

the Argentine treaty, is that free-trade arguments are so innocently used by men who have gone all their lives in horror of them. "In any other mouth," said Pascal's Jesuit, "these opinions would be orthodox"; coming from a Jansenist, of course they were heretical. So we say, if anybody but Mr. McKinley talked as he does about the French and Argentine treaties, he would be a free-trader.

Appraiser Wakeman continues to be a thorn in the side of New York importers. It has seemed to be his view all along that importing is an immoral act, which has somehow been recognized and tolerated by the United States Government, but which good men should discountenance and prevent as much as possible. So he takes all possible means to check this kind of misdemeanor. The result is that foreign trade really belonging to New York seeks other ports, where less fanatical appraisers are stationed. It would not be surprising if New York should receive the bulk of her dry-goods of foreign make through the Boston custom-house before the expiration of Wakeman's term. So, as we cannot have Wakemans at all our ports, we should not be suppressing the evil practice of importing, but only changing its lurking-place. A report comes from Washington that Wakeman will not be removed from office, but that he will be warned to mend his ways. Such leniency will be a mistake on the part of the higher authorities. Wakeman has received many warnings to "be decent," but they have been of no avail, because the crime of importing was constantly going on before his eyes. As well expect a Puritan of the seventeenth century to keep his hands off an image in a Catholic church. Foreign goods are a kind of godless idolatry to the Wakeman vision, and an importer, although he may be a protective tariff man himself and a member of the very League of which Wakeman was Secretary, is in his eyes an object of sleepless vigilance and never ending suspicion.

The native Cuban press treated Gen. Brooke's farewell proclamation with grave humor. "We look around us," said the *Diario de la Marina*, "as Gen. Brooke urges us to do, but we do not see the things he says we shall." One of them was judicial and prison reform, upon which Gen. Wood seems now to be entering with vigor. Towards the new Military Governor all factions are very respectful. This, however, may be only provisional, until Wood chooses his Cabinet; then he will be apt to hear things said in fluent Castilian. The *Cubano* already demands the dismissal of Gen.

Ludlow, who, it says, "has governed by means of ukases signed with the point of his sword." These are but indications of the swarming difficulties which will try the patience and tact of Gen. Wood in his new and arduous position, but which we think he will surmount.

We suppose that the incorporation of the Panama Canal Company in New Jersey on Wednesday of last week is intended partly to remove the deadly reproach that it was a "foreign" enterprise. This was used as a fatal taunt in the last Congress. It will be no longer available; however, now that the incorporators are able to announce "the Americanization of the Panama Canal." This makes the Panama route at least as patriotic as the Nicaragua plan, and thus the eminent engineers who are investigating the comparative technical merits of the two are at liberty to dismiss all invidious questions about the flag, and look only for the better place to dig a canal. Their report cannot, in all probability, be laid before Congress in its present session. The President evidently does not expect that it will be, as he said in his message that "a comprehensive and complete investigation is called for, which will require much labor and considerable time for its accomplishment." Yet this, of course, has not prevented the impetuous Hepburn and the fiery Morgan from announcing that they propose to push bills for the construction of a Nicaragua Canal, without waiting for any little thing like a Government report. They will be more than ever inclined to make haste when they learn that the Americanized Panama Company proposes to raise American capital and complete its canal without asking money from Congress.

President McKinley must see the absurdity of forbidding Federal office-holders to attend the Republican national convention for two or three days next June, and at the same time allowing one of the chief among such office-holders to act for nearly a year as chairman of an important partisan committee. It would be logical to let First Assistant Postmaster-General Heath be head of the "committee on organization and literature" just established by the Republican national committee, and also to let as many postmasters throughout the country go to the convention at Philadelphia as could secure election as delegates. It would be logical also to prohibit such partisan activity by both superior and subordinates. But to say that Mr. Heath of Indiana may turn himself into a partisan worker for the next ten months, as First Assistant

Postmaster-General at Washington, while he could not even be a delegate to the national convention if he were a postmaster at home, seems too ridiculous for the President to permit—to say nothing of the scandal involved in the license to neglect his public duties thus given the official who stands next to the head in a great department.

The news which Elliot Danforth, formerly our leading silver and Bryan Democrat in this State, has brought from the South confirms similar information from Washington. He says that the Southern Democratic leaders are not insisting upon making free silver the main issue in next year's campaign, that they acknowledge that the situation has changed since 1896, and that they now think Trusts and imperialism will be the dominant issues in 1900. As for candidates, they mention only Bryan for first place, with some Eastern man for second. Why not throw over Bryan with the free-silver issue? He never had any other excuse for being a candidate, and, without that issue, he will have no claim to a renomination. If he consents to be separated from his issue, he will be repudiated by the free-silverites and other Populistic elements, which were attracted to him by that alone, and he will have great difficulty in gaining the confidence of other elements, both in and out of the Democratic party. Distrust of the man is as strong as distrust in his issue, and if the party has the sagacity to see its opportunity, it will make thorough work of its unloading, and throw both overboard together.

The reaction of sentiment in the House of Representatives regarding the treatment of the Roberts case from Utah at the opening of the session encourages the hope that the Constitution may receive more attention when another claim to a seat comes before that body. Most Representatives now concede that the Mormon claimant ought to have been admitted upon his regular credentials, and then expelled with all the impressiveness which such deliberate action would have commanded. These Congressmen will be disposed to pay more heed to the fundamental law when the case of Gen. Wheeler of Alabama comes before the present House than was paid in the last. The Federal Constitution says that "no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office." Gen. Wheeler held the office of general in the United States volunteers during the last Congress, but still claimed the right to a seat in the House when he chose to appear there, and the claim was allowed. It is safe to say that he will not be permitted to do the same thing again in this Congress.

It turns out that the Seventy-first New

York Regiment does not deserve the bad preëminence recently given it of putting in the largest number of claims for pensions yet received from any regiment which took part in the war with Spain. Its applications at last accounts numbered only 311, while 650 have come in from the Ninth Massachusetts. This latter regiment never had a strength exceeding 1,200 men. It was not mustered into the service until May, 1898, and was mustered out six months later. The remarkable and discreditable contrast between the rush for pensions by soldiers in the brief Spanish war and the spirit manifested by the men who served in the Union army during the four years' struggle against the Southern Confederacy, is best shown by comparing these figures for the Seventy-first New York and the Ninth Massachusetts with the figures for the Pennsylvania regiment which was commanded during the civil war by Col. Beaver, afterward Governor of the State. This regiment had 2,094 enlistments from the beginning to the ending of the war. Up to the close of 1882, seventeen years after the end of the war, only 475 applications for pensions had been filed, of which 90 came from widows, 23 from minors, and 53 from dependent relatives. Most of the soldiers of Col. Beaver's regiment on whose account pensions were granted, were actually killed in battle or died of their wounds.

The plan to increase the number of chaplains in the army, which is now being urged by the War Department, should meet with little public encouragement. For years past the clergymen appointed to the army have largely been men who failed to do well in civil life, and who got their positions only by using political pulls. Once in the service they have been of little value, except as teachers in far-away posts, and have been retired within comparatively few years after their appointment, the average period of service of those now on the retired list being little more than twelve years, while scandals have by no means been infrequent in the corps. For many years thoughtful army officers have favored the total abolition of the office, and foremost among these was Gen. Sherman, who, loyal churchman as he was, never failed to denounce the clerical scrambling for office which these places caused. In view of the fact that the War Department is now trying Chaplain Shields for intoxication, that charges are pending against another, and that, when ordered to Manila recently, several chaplains resorted to all sorts of curious devices to escape duty in the field, the desire of the War Department to increase this class of non-combatant officers has much need of justification.

Good citizens all over the country, no

less than in Illinois, will rejoice at the news that Gov. Tanner of that State has reached the end of his career. He has earnestly sought to secure another nomination from the Republicans next year, but the opposition within his own party proved so strong that on Friday he made formal announcement of his withdrawal from the field. Tanner is the worst specimen of the boss building up a State machine after the manner of Platt in New York and Quay in Pennsylvania, that has been seen beyond the Alleghenies. Without a single qualification for high office himself, he managed to secure the Republican nomination for the governorship in a year when he could run nearly 20,000 votes behind his party's candidate for President and still get a plurality of much over 100,000. Installed in the chief office, he used all his influence to lower the standard in other positions, and to organize a machine which should permanently control the politics of the State. He had as little respect for law as for public sentiment, and shocked the nation a year ago by usurping the power to forbid the entrance into Illinois of men from other States seeking work in her mines, and threatening to "blow to pieces with Gatling guns" any body of such offenders. In short, he has been a disgrace not only to his State, but to the whole country, and his final downfall is cause for universal satisfaction.

It is characteristic of a happy-go-lucky nation that, after looking with pleased curiosity for fifteen years at the digging of a drainage canal from the city of Chicago to the outfall of the Des Plaines River, we have suddenly awakened to the fact that this ditch is intended to carry the city's sewage down to the Illinois River and thence to the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. This fact was proclaimed in many ways by the Chicago authorities, newspapers, and financiers. Loans were negotiated to the amount of \$30,000,000 or more, for that express purpose. Meetings of engineers and men of science were held to discuss plans for carrying out this design, and considerable *éclat* was earned by the energetic contractors. Pictorial illustrations of their machinery were published from time to time and widely circulated. And yet, on the very eve of opening the drainage canal (on January 2), there arose a sudden demand from downstream that the opening of the canal be deferred until Congress, or the courts, or somebody should have time to stop it altogether. What effect the drainage scheme may have on the health and beauty of the communities downstream we do not attempt to divine, but we submit that that question ought to have been put beyond the bounds of controversy before the first dollar was expended on the present scheme, and that it is unreasonable to expect that

Chicago will forfeit the fruition of her labors unless compelled to do so by superior force. Meanwhile, the southward flow has begun.

The war in South Africa has made the world's supply of gold a matter of anxiety to many persons who have no interest in gold mines there or anywhere. It is the habit of the human mind to think of the word supply as applicable only to a commodity which disappears in the using. So, when we speak of the annual supply of gold, we unconsciously liken it to the annual supply of wheat or cotton; and when we hear that the supply is lessening, or that an important source of supply has been cut off, we feel an instant apprehension of scarcity and consequent trouble in the financial world. The phrase "gold famine" was in general use a few years ago, when the silver controversy was at its height. If the war in South Africa had occurred at that crisis in our politics, it might have turned the scale the other way and given victory to the party of 16 to 1. Yet the smallest reflection teaches that gold, when used as money, is not consumed by that process. The only gold actually consumed is the amount used in the arts, and not all of that, but only the portion used in such a way that it cannot be recovered. Its supply is not like that of other commodities, which require constant renewal to keep the stock up to a certain level.

In addition to the lesson in tactics the English are learning at the hands of the Boers, they are gaining much interesting information as to the fundamental weakness of their military organization. It is only a few months since the Government triumphantly laid before Parliament an impressive list of army improvements brought about within a comparatively short time. But these related largely to the strengthening of the standing army, and but little, if at all, to the militia reserves, the militia itself, and the volunteers, to which bodies the country has now turned in its hour of need, as it turned during the Crimean war, the Indian mutiny, and, to a slight degree, during the Sudan campaign of 1885. The present mobilization of the reserve forces is therefore the first important test of their value in nearly half a century, and is being carefully watched by Continental experts. As to the actual strength of the militia, there seem to be few figures available, and it is a matter of doubt whether 90,000 of the paper strength of 135,000 men could take the field with their respective organizations. Competent military critics have expressed high opinions of the value of the raw material to be found in the ranks of the various battalions, while laying great stress upon the hopelessly antiquated system, un-

der which even accurate enrolment lists are an impossibility. In regard to the volunteers and the Yeomanry, now figuring so conspicuously in the dispatches, it is admitted that, as far as training goes, they are of little military value, and their employment in new organizations in South Africa will be an experiment, the outcome of which will unquestionably be watched with considerable misgivings.

The dispatch of the Yeomanry will call still further attention to other military weaknesses—the lack of trained cavalry and artillery remounts and of sufficient reserve equipments and ordnance supplies. What is of greater importance, however, is the fact that the War Office has been forced to draw upon the equipments of both militia and volunteers to complete those of the troops under orders to South Africa. But it is lack of trained officers that the English forces are likely to suffer from most, if the need has not already been felt. The great losses among the commissioned ranks in the victories and defeats thus far, the large number of officers required on staff and supply duty, as well as on the long lines of communication and on detached service in all quarters of the globe, must tax severely the resources of the War Office, which has only the retired and half-pay lists and untrained militia officers to fall back upon. Under these circumstances many Englishmen are asking themselves what would happen if Mr. Chamberlain involved the country in a really great foreign war, and a serious problem of national defence were to present itself. From the temper of the English press and as a result of the humiliating experiences in South Africa during the past month, it already seems plain that the "easy march to Pretoria" will result in radical changes throughout the British military system, and in a great strengthening of its land forces.

That England, with the consent of Germany, is eventually to have Delagoa Bay and the whole Portuguese strip on the East African coast, is a fair inference from what is known of the Anglo-German agreement of 1898, as also from the official and semi-official assertions and denials now appearing in the press. The thing was roundly asserted more than a year ago by "Diplomaticus," the writer who, in the *Fortnightly*, has published so many articles showing a remarkable knowledge of the secrets of English diplomacy. It was affirmed, too, in the dispatches of the *Evening Post's* London correspondent. No official denial touches the substance of the arrangement. Details, as printed, may be wrong, but the gist of the matter has not been officially denied. The nearest to a Government *démenti* that we have seen was the state-

ment made by the Portuguese Ministry some time ago, that no national territory had been sold. But that is obviously inconclusive. The matter is no doubt tied up as yet, as Lord Salisbury hinted some months since, with the arbitration of the Delagoa Bay Railway controversy, on which the verdict of the Swiss tribunal is soon expected. Thus it is not likely that we shall see a speedy English occupation of Delagoa Bay. It may yet occur as a war measure. To get a more feasible line of march into the Transvaal would no doubt be a good thing, but if, in the act, Russia and France were further offended and inclined to some hostile move of their own, the net military advantage to the British might be less than nothing. It is not probable, therefore, that any immediate change will be made in the status of Delagoa Bay.

The German Emperor has now set his heart on a doubled navy, and in his New Year's address he showed that he means to let no occasion pass without arguing for his pet project. Herr Richter, in his biting speech in the Reichstag, made fun of the tendency of the Emperor and of his subservient ministers and newspapers to produce an enlarged German navy as the Q. E. D. of every historical movement and current event. Herr Richter predicted that, if Germany, with a great flourish of trumpets, informed the whole world just how many ships she was going to build in the next eighteen years, other countries would at once enlarge their naval programmes, and the result would be that, at the end of the period in question, the German navy would be relatively as inferior as ever. This is exactly what is already happening. France is about to vote \$80,000,000 for naval enlargement, and the Government organs in England are saying that, if the German programme succeeds in the Reichstag, it will be necessary for the British Admiralty at once to provide for new constructions. Mr. Goschen himself, in a public speech on December 18, practically confirmed this view of what England would do. He spoke plainly of the paramount duty of keeping English naval efficiency "unimpaired." If there is to be a race in ship-building, Great Britain will not be left behind. Mr. Goschen was also very direct in what he said of England's watchful attitude at present. Lord Salisbury had before scouted the idea of interference by any other Power in the Boer war. No European country desired to interfere, he was persuaded, but if any did, Great Britain was in a position to prevent it. To these warnings of the Premier, the First Lord of the Admiralty added the words: "We know our responsibilities, and no ship is now disposed of, no ship sent to any quarter of the globe, without our realizing the necessity of taking a broad outlook over the whole state of affairs throughout this great empire."

HAS MCKINLEY "A SURE THING"?

"I suppose you think that McKinley has a sure thing in 1900," said a New Yorker, the other day, with confidence in a ready assent, to a shrewd Republican politician from a State in the Central West, who was making a trip to the East. "I'm not so sure about that," was the unexpected reply: "I can foresee contingencies under which, it seems to me, Bryan will have more than a fighting chance of being elected."

McKinley secured 271 of the 447 votes in the electoral college in 1896, and polled over 600,000 more ballots than Bryan, while nearly 135,000 other votes were diverted from the Democratic candidate by the Palmer and Buckner ticket. In other words, Bryan was in a minority of almost three-quarters of a million ballots, to say nothing of the votes cast for the Prohibitionist and the Socialist-Labor candidates. In speculating about the prospect for 1900, Republican politicians, particularly those of the East, are accustomed to argue that Bryan was beaten worse in 1896 than any other candidate of either party since Greeley's overwhelming defeat by Grant in 1872; that he is weaker now than he was then, because the silver issue which he represents has lost its hold; and that consequently he is certain to lose next fall. This is what any Republican manager from the West also says when he is "talking for publication"; but there are not a few well-informed members of the party in that section who privately admit that they do not at heart feel so confident of the result as they would like to.

There is abundant reason for not regarding the issue of next fall's contest as a foregone conclusion. In the first place, while McKinley's victory in 1896 was in one sense overwhelming, analysis shows that the change of less than 34,000 votes in four Southern and two Northern States would have put his opponent in the White House. Bryan secured one of the electors from Kentucky, and McKinley obtained the other twelve by pluralities not exceeding 281; the other three States of the formerly "solid South" which went for McKinley were carried by 3,837 votes in Delaware, 11,487 in West Virginia, and 32,232 in Maryland. Bryan secured one of the nine electors from California, and lost the other eight by pluralities rising no higher than 1,922. Indiana went for McKinley by a plurality of 18,181. In other words, if the hesitating voters in these half-dozen States, who made up their minds at the last moment, had gone the other way—to the number of 141 in Kentucky, 962 in California, 1,919 in Delaware, 5,744 in West Virginia, 9,091 in Indiana, and 16,117 in Maryland—Bryan would have had 228 electoral votes and the Presidency, despite the fact that, even then, McKinley's plurality over him at the polls would have been much more than half a million.

With almost incredible folly, the Republicans are doing their best to assure Bryan this year the four Southern States which he lost in 1896. Nothing could have been devised better calculated to destroy Republican chances in all of these States than the scheme which has already been brought forward in Congress, and which is to be pushed after the holiday recess, for an inquiry by the Census Bureau into voting statistics at the South, with the avowed purpose of making the result a basis for cutting down the representation of that section in the House of Representatives and the electoral college. The mere agitation of such a project revives that old sectional issue which held the South solid for twenty years, and the dropping of which alone made possible McKinley's successes in the border States in 1896. Maryland has already been recovered by the Democrats in a State election, and Kentucky would have gone the same way in November had it not been for the temporary handicap of Goebelism. The Republicans of Delaware are utterly demoralized by Addicksism. The recrudescence of the race issue justifies the Democrats of West Virginia in hopefulness.

While a new question which helps the opposition is thus injected into the canvass, it remains to be seen whether the Republicans will be as strong on the financial issue in 1900 as they were in 1896. What gave McKinley his tremendous pluralities of nearly 300,000 in Pennsylvania, almost 270,000 in New York, nearly 90,000 in New Jersey, which had been Democratic since 1872, and more than 50,000 in the "doubtful State" of Connecticut? Everybody knows that it was the fear that Bryan's election would mean a change to the silver standard, and in consequence the most terrible financial convulsion ever known. But the Republicans now maintain that the financial measure which they are going to pass in Congress will assure the stability of the gold standard, no matter whether the President be a gold man or not. This is patriotic and necessary legislation, but can Republican stump-speakers and organs turn around next fall and frighten former Democrats into voting for McKinley again because "Bryan's election will ruin this country"?

In 1896 the Republicans had the great advantage of being "the outs," and of having the "hard times" issue against the other party—a combination which has won after every great financial panic in our history for sixty years. In 1900 they will lack this advantage. Supposing the present prosperity to last until next fall, all they can say to the workman is that McKinley should be re-elected to insure its continuance. They used precisely the same argument under similar circumstances when Harrison ran for reelection in 1892, and were overwhelmingly beaten.

The Republicans seem to-day to stand

a better chance than the Bryanites of carrying three or four States beyond the Missouri which they lost before, namely, Kansas, South Dakota, Wyoming, and Washington, no one of which, however, except Kansas, has above four electoral votes. But all of these will need to be closely contested if McKinley is to carry them, as will also California if he is to hold it. On the other hand, there are States this side of the Missouri in which the opposition will be decidedly stronger in 1900 than in 1896, by virtue simply of the fact that the lurch into Bryanism then left the party almost without leaders, organization, or machinery of any sort, while during the interval something has been built up to supply this lack.

We say nothing of the possible bearing of the course of events in the Philippines upon the voting next November, further than this, that many Republican politicians do not conceal their apprehension of the effect upon the public mind of a long continuance of present conditions, and would dread to make the campaign with a guerilla warfare still running on.

It is obvious enough that the Western Republican whose remark we quoted at the outset is quite warranted in his view that the Presidential race of 1900 may not be a walkover for the candidate of his party. It is well that he and his associates should be apprehensive lest the political pendulum, which, since 1872, has swung the doubtful States, and with them the result of the election, from one party to the other every four years, may not stay in 1900 where it rested in 1896.

"DON'T GIVE UP THE SHIP."

These words are printed on the title-page of a pamphlet which the promoters of the ship-subsidy bill are now circulating in the interest of that measure. They were uttered by Capt. Lawrence when he gave up his life for his country on the deck of the frigate *Chesapeake* in her fight with the *Shannon*. They are now perverted to serve as inspiration for as graceless a raid on the United States Treasury as was ever devised by human greed. The pamphlet in question is entitled 'United States Merchant Marine on the Oceans,' and is published in Cleveland, Ohio. It embraces letters from a large number of persons in favor of the Hanna-Payne bill, all of them in favor of the policy of paying money out of the public Treasury to carry on a private industry. The contents have not been very carefully edited, however. If they had been scrutinized more closely Mr. B. L. Pennington, a vessel-owner of Cleveland, would not have been allowed to repeat and endorse as freely as he does the arguments of those who oppose the bill on economical grounds. Mr. Pennington, we should remark, favors the

bill in spite of its badness; but if all that he says concerning the measure itself and the principles on which it is based is true, it does not need any further argument to consign it to the tomb.

Referring to the "humiliating fact" that 92 per cent. of our goods are carried in foreign bottoms, for which we are paying annually, it is said, two hundred millions, for the most part lost to the United States, Mr. Pennington points out that the sole reason why this has been done is that we could hire foreign tonnage for our needs cheaper than we could own it. "If our capitalists," he continues, "could not build, and man ships so cheaply as those abroad, it is evident that other employment of capital was more remunerative, and on which better than foreign wages could be afforded." Then he gives a sly dig at the tariff which has handicapped us hitherto in the ocean carrying trade.

But this handicap is surely passing away. "Social, industrial, and economic changes are now going on at such a rapid pace as to show almost certainly that, before many years, even without such aid, such employment of capital will be profitable." That is, the American merchant marine will be "rehabilitated" in a few years without Government pay, simply because we now excel other nations in the production of iron, steel, and other things which enter into the production of modern ships. In order to hasten the natural course of things by some short period, and for no other reason, Mr. Pennington gives his assent to the principle of the bill, but not to its details. He thinks that "the compensation under clause B is too large, especially for the largest and fastest vessels, since such large craft already have in their favor the fact that they can make much more money than small craft, in proportion to their value."

The bill as drawn gives most money to those who need it least. This is usually the case in raids on the Treasury. Such raids would not be started at all except by the rich and powerful, and, as they arrange the details, they naturally arrange them in their own interest. "Besides," says Mr. Pennington, "the smaller compensation in clause A is an unjust discrimination against our existing tonnage, which has fought so long and so bravely against great odds for existence." The late John Murray Forbes of Boston was one of those small-
tonnage men, but the peculiarity in his case was that he did not want any subsidy at all. All that he asked was to be let alone. He wanted the privilege of buying ships where they were offered cheapest, but, failing of that privilege, he kept his sailing-ships going to and from eastern Asia, and he opposed every measure for shipping bounties and subsidies down to the day of his death. If he were living now, and in possession of his wonted vigor, he would go to

Washington and demolish the Hanna-Payne bill by his arguments and his example, and make Congress ashamed to pass it.

Some evidence has lately been presented showing that the agricultural classes are getting their eyes open to the fact that enormous sums are to be paid out of the national taxes to ship-builders and ship-owners, without any perceptible benefit to the farmers themselves. The argument for the subsidy bill is that foreign ships are carrying our wheat, corn, cotton, and pork so cheaply that our ships cannot compete with them, but must have help from the Treasury. If this is a true statement, how will any of this money reach the farmer's pocket? Confessedly the amount paid to the subsidized ship-owner will only compensate him for the extra sums he has to pay for his ship and wages. Hence there is nothing left to be paid to the farmer in the way of extra profit, even if there were any means for securing and compelling a division. France and Italy pay subsidies like those proposed in the Hanna-Payne bill, but the color of the money was never seen by the agricultural classes of those countries. The latter are supposed to be compensated by tariffs against the farm products of other nations. Even this poor compensation is impossible here, because we are exporters, and not importers, of such products.

The Hanna-Payne bill is a gigantic fraud on the taxpayers of the United States, and it ought to be a serious question among the leaders of the Republican party how many such reproaches they can carry in the coming campaign. They are heavily charged now with monopolies of one kind and another. They are exposed, rightly or wrongly, to the accusation of legislating in behalf of the rich and to the detriment of the poor. If they pass the ship-subsidy bill, they will have furnished one case where the accusation can be nailed upon the party and cannot be explained away. Will not many voters conclude that the other charges are equally well founded?

SURVIVAL OF LETTER-WRITING.

One of the greatest charms connected with the recently published letters of Robert Louis Stevenson was that of finding them actually existing. Men like him had not left off letter-writing then! The discovery was of itself a delight in this age of postal-cards and telegraph-blanks. "I telegraph, therefore I am," was a witty Frenchman's modern reading of the old *Cogito ergo sum*. The stress of business, or paucity of ideas, is reducing current correspondence so much to the semblance of a code-language, or muttered monosyllables, that long letters, written by a busy invalid like Stevenson, come with special grace of surprise. And he was writing them, be it remembered, a man hunted by publishers, who shook

their checks in his face for every line he could produce. But he gave away his "copy" to his friends with right royal bounty.

Of friendship, indeed, good letter-writing is perhaps the chief sign and proof. This was the opinion of that copious letter-writer, James Howell. "Friendship," said he, "is the great Chain of human Society, and intercourse of Letters is one of the chiefest links of that Chain." He doubtless was thinking of the revelation and giving of self that letters imply, opening the heart as a key does a door, as his favorite motto had it—"Ut clavis portam, sic pandit epistola pectus." This, too, was the view which Dr. Johnson took when he wrote to Mrs. Thrale that "a man's soul lies naked in his letters." Yet he was conscious that this was not the whole story, for he characteristically observed in his Life of Pope that "no transaction offers stronger temptations to fallacy and sophistication than epistolary intercourse." But there is no doubt that the true Stevenson, the sincere friend and gallant spirit, is displayed in these delightful letters of his. A French critic speaks of them in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* as the very model of what a literary man's correspondence should be.

For professional writers, one would think, there is a special need of expanding in letters to each other, or to a judicious friend. They have so many things to say which they cannot say to the public. Pearls often decorate a letter which simply could not be cast before—well, the genteel reading-public. There are forms of wicked cleverness, of irony, of truth taught by silent laughter, which would be wasted upon the literal and unwinking devourer of print, and which require the written page and fit audience. Then there are the conventionalities, the humbugs generally agreed upon, which must be observed in decorous magazine or book, but which your true letter-writer finds a delightful freedom in disregarding or exposing in private. This was long ago remarked by Poe, who said that the confidential talk and private criticism of literary men were vastly more illuminating than their public utterance. The reason was that, in a circle of friends, most of all in a conversation *à deux*, a man could not take the trouble to "mould his countenance to the lie" expected of him in print. Many a man's letters are the well in which he keeps truth.

Stevenson's Letters, to come back to them, frequently possess one thing in common with those of the best writers—the attractiveness of impromptu and unofficial criticism. It is getting to be a question if this is not the very best criticism we have. The glancing judgments of FitzGerald's letters, the happy insight in some of Keats's, Tennyson's *obiter dicta*, Browning's keen deliverances in his letters, Lowell's overplus of wit in

his—where in works of formal criticism shall we find their equal for inspiration and solace? It was a surprising thing in Matthew Arnold's Letters that they were so barren of criticism. You would have looked for much of it in the critic by profession. Yet, beyond the undisguised respect with which he analyzed his own poetical powers and prospects, there was little or nothing of it to catch and fix the attention. It takes the more spontaneous natures to overflow in the unpremeditated criticism which makes the cut-and-dried article seem a poor and juiceless affair. Stevenson had some delightful splashes of the former.

But the main thing is, as we said at the start, that he gives us one proof more that letter-writing has survived. The formal and stilted art may have passed away, but the breath and joy of quick and confidential communication of friend with friend remain. It sometimes seems as if nobody but lovers kept up nowadays the practice of close and full intercourse by means of letters. Certainly as long as the world has lovers, suffering like Shakspeare from a "separable spite," it will have letters, and long and leisurely ones. The Prince of Wales, who was later George IV., did his twenty-seven pages of "I-love-yous" to Mrs. Fitzherbert as the most natural thing in the world, and natural it continues to men in his condition. But to get two large volumes of letters, like Stevenson's, with never a love-letter in the lot, is a grateful renewal of hope in the persistence, even in our shorthand generation, of deliberate and self-revealing letter-writing.

ELLIOTT COUES.

By the death of Elliott Coues, at the comparatively early age of fifty-seven years, American ornithology has lost one of its most eminent and brilliant expounders. As a monographer and technical writer he has left an enviable reputation for thoroughness of research and keenness of insight, and as a popular writer he was easily without a peer. But his field of activity was by no means bounded by ornithology, his contributions to comparative anatomy being neither few nor unimportant, while his grasp upon the principles and the technicalities of general biology rendered him eminently fitted for his important share in the task of preparing the 'Century Dictionary.' To him were assigned the subjects General Zoölogy, Biology, and Comparative Anatomy, and he both edited and contributed to them some 40,000 entries during the seven years he devoted almost exclusively to this occupation.

Dr. Coues was born in Portsmouth, N. H., September 9, 1842. Eleven years later his father, Samuel Elliott Coues, removed with his family to Washington, where young Elliott was educated. For a time he was sent to Gonzaga College, under the management of the Jesuit fathers. In 1857 he entered what is now the Columbian University, taking his A.B. degree in 1861 and his medical degree in 1863, and receiving later also the honorary degrees of M.A. and

Ph.D. He was enlisted as a medical cadet while yet a student, and, soon after graduation, was appointed assistant surgeon in the United States Army, his first station being Fort Whipple, Arizona. After ten years of service as post surgeon, at different military stations, he was ordered to Fort Randall, Dakota, and appointed surgeon and naturalist to the United States Northern Boundary Commission, which surveyed the line of the forty-ninth parallel from the Lake of the Woods westward. The following two years he was engaged in Washington in the preparation of the scientific report of the Survey, and in 1876 was detailed to duty as secretary and naturalist of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories, under the late Dr. F. V. Hayden. At the end of four years' invaluable service to the Survey and to science he was again ordered to Arizona. He had now become wholly absorbed in the scientific and literary work for which he was so well fitted, and found the routine duty of a frontier army post, of which he was never over-fond, exceedingly distasteful. Protests and appeals for a more congenial assignment meeting with no favor on the part of the medical authorities of the army, he tendered his resignation in order to continue his scientific pursuits. After 1881 he resided in Washington, frequently making, however, during recent years, long journeys through the West, as will be related presently.

Dr. Coues's ornithological investigations began while he was a mere boy, and his enthusiasm for ornithology suffered no abatement during his later years, though other literary pursuits absorbed the greater part of his activities. His first ornithological papers were published in 1861, while a youth of eighteen years, and related to such technical subjects as are indicated by the titles, "A Monograph of the *Tringa* of North America" and "A Monograph of the Genus *Agriothus*, with Descriptions of New Species." Under the tutelage of the late Prof. Baird, between whom and Coues existed the strongest friendship, these early papers bear the marks of a master hand, not only as regards their technicalities, but in their method of presentation. From this time on there was an unceasing flow of contributions from his pen, literary, philosophic, and scientific, the last-named relating to ornithology in all its varied phases.

His scientific writings number about 1,000 titles, including minor papers and reviews in scientific journals, and, among others, the following special works: 'Key to North American Birds' (1872), with its companion volume, 'Field Ornithology' (1874). The 'Key,' entirely rewritten, was republished in 1884. No work on American ornithology has had so great and so favorable an influence on the progress of ornithology in America as this, the guide and vade-mecum of the present generation of ornithologists. His 'Birds of the Northwest' (1874), his 'Fur-bearing Animals' (1877), 'Monographs of North American Rodentia' (with J. A. Allen), 1877, and his 'Birds of the Colorado Valley' (1878), were all publications of the Hayden Survey. Upon a projected 'History of North American Mammals,' under the same auspices, much work was done, but it never saw the light, owing to Dr. Coues being ordered again to military duty in Arizona in 1881, and the reorganization of the Survey under a new head. This period of his life also yielded several invaluable in-

stalments of a 'Bibliography of Ornithology' (1878-1880). Much the greater part of this immense work, which cost the author years of hard labor, still, unfortunately, remains in manuscript. In 1881 appeared his 'New England Bird-Life' (with W. A. Stearns), and in 1882 his 'Dictionary and Check-List of North American Birds.' He left in manuscript a new edition of the 'Key,' entirely rewritten and brought down to date, and, it is to be hoped, in condition for prompt publication.

In 1869 Coues was elected Professor of Zoölogy and Comparative Anatomy in the Norwich University, Vermont, but this post, being incompatible with army life on the remote frontier, he was unable to fill. In 1877 he was called to the chair of anatomy at the National Medical College in Washington, where for ten years he lectured acceptably on human anatomy from the standpoint of morphology and evolution. At this date he was elected a member of the National Academy of Sciences, the highest scientific honor attainable in American science. It is almost needless to say that he was also a member of all the leading scientific societies of America, and of a large number of foreign academies and societies. He was one of the founders of the American Ornithologists' Union, and at one time its President, and always a valued member of its Council, and a collaborer in the conduct of its journal, the *Auk*, and in the preparation of its 'Code of Nomenclature and Check-List of North American Birds.'

About 1880 Dr. Coues became actively interested in the phenomena of hypnotism, clairvoyance, telepathy, and so-called spiritualism, and in theosophical speculations, in the belief that the principles of physical science might be equally applicable to psychical research. This became with him, for several years, an absorbing subject, and led for a time to his affiliation with Mme. Blavatsky and other prominent Theosophists; but he subsequently lost much of his interest in such studies and all his respect for the leaders of the sect. As a product of this period may be mentioned his 'Biogen: A Speculation on the Origin and Nature of Life' (1883), 'The Dæmon of Darwin' (1884), etc.

After all this prodigious activity in scientific lines, it may almost have seemed to Dr. Coues as if the "final cause" of his training were to rescue from oblivion the sources of the exploration of the great territory beyond the Mississippi. His roving army life combined with his naturalist's experience and knowledge to make him an ideal editor of the Journals of Lewis and Clark, his first (and it was a stupendous) undertaking (1893). Many special journeys were, however, made for this and for other similar pious labors—Zebulon Pike's 'Account,' Fowler's Journal, Larpen's Personal Narrative—of which our readers have been duly apprised. The copiousness, sometimes carried to excess, and minuteness of his annotations are almost incredible. It was in pursuance of a journey in the Southwest made last summer with younger and stronger men, in order to fortify his editing of the forthcoming Diary of Francisco Garcés, that Dr. Coues broke down and his magnificent physique was reduced to naught. After a month of acute suffering at Santa Fé in September, he was brought to Chicago, and still hoped, as he wrote us, to get ten or twelve years'

more work out of his organism, whose undermining he was then far from being aware of. November was spent at his home in Washington, but on the 29th he wrote from Baltimore: "The worst possible fears in my case are confirmed by diagnosis made to-day at Johns Hopkins, and I face the formidable operation which offers hope of prolonging my life." On December 5, firmly pencilled on the last proof returned to the *Nation* were the words: "I am to be knifed to-morrow A. M., and—I am unmoved." On the 13th he wrote, still steadily and at length, believing that surgical skill had granted him a reprieve for further life and usefulness. On Christmas Day he died; and the *Nation*, which has long held him among its most willing, prompt, and attached contributors, will know his hand no more.

Dr. Coues was a fluent and impressive speaker, a writer of exceptional facility of expression and rare vivacity and readability, a man of deep feeling and great fixity of purpose, firm and intense in his friendships, impulsive and sometimes aggressive, and not always discreet in his treatment of an opponent, yet warm-hearted and helpful, as many an aided aspirant for ornithological prominence can testify. He was twice married, his second marriage, to Mrs. Mary Emily Bates of Philadelphia, occurring in 1887; and she, with children by his first marriage, survives him.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

BOSTON, December 30, 1899.

The fifteenth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, December 27-29, in this city, was in many respects a notable one. A large attendance, an attractive programme, generous hospitality, and ideal weather all contributed to profit and enjoyment, while the atmosphere of historical association and the wealth of places of historical interest proved for many members an especial charm.

So far as the programme is concerned, its most noticeable feature, and the one most frequently commented upon, was the absence of the technical papers, embodying the results of protracted and minute research, which in former years have been of so much importance. Of the sixteen papers read, only two or three were, in the strict sense, historical, the remainder dealing with one or other of the numerous subjects which have been sought to be included under the designation of political science, or with immediate problems of political, economic, or educational policy. Such were the papers of Prof. Andrews of Bryn Mawr, on the place of recent European history in the college curriculum, and the forcible statement by Prof. Ashley of Harvard of the claims of economic history. The change is not without significance, illustrating as it does the broad view of its functions taken by the Association, and its purpose to help, so far as lies in its power, in the solution of present difficulties. That the absence of papers appealing primarily only to the initiated added appreciably to the general interest in the proceedings, and accounted in part for the uniformly large audiences, is probable; and to arouse public interest in historical and political studies, especially at this time, is certainly worth while, even though the next report of the Association be a less learned volume in consequence.

It is impossible to do more than mention

a few of the more important contributions and discussions. The address of the President of the Association, Mr. James F. Rhodes, with its plea for the broad study of historical phenomena, was happily in accord with the general spirit of the meeting. The programme itself was made up on a topical plan, papers on the same general subject being brought together in the same session. Wednesday morning, for example, was given to papers prepared by members of the committee for the study of colonies and dependencies, appointed last year at New Haven. Prof. H. E. Bourne of Cleveland, chairman of the committee, gave a résumé of the situation, so far as the United States is concerned, and of the difficulties which beset the path of empire, but cautiously refrained from making specific recommendations other than regard for the merit system in appointments. To those who had hoped that the conclusions of the committee would attain within the year tolerable definiteness and precision, as was the case with the similar committee of the American Economic Association, Prof. Bourne's report was disappointing. A brief account, exceptionally well put, of the selection and training of colonial officials in England, France, and Holland, by Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell, awakened much interest, as did a paper by Prof. F. W. Williams of Yale on the treatment of Chinese emigrants in the Far East.

Perhaps the greatest interest centred in the session of Friday morning at Sanders Theatre, Cambridge. The general subject was foreign relations. The opening paper, by Prof. McMaster, set forth clearly and concisely the view that our new possessions are not within the purview of the Constitution, save as regards the prohibition of slavery, but are subject to the discretionary control of Congress—a view with which Prof. J. B. Moore of Columbia expressed his concurrence. It was noticeable that the question, practically of the first importance, of how far the spirit of certain general provisions of the Constitution is fairly to be regarded as a restraint upon either Congressional or Executive action, was not touched upon. An instructive parallel to our recent dealings with Spain was found by Prof. E. G. Bourne of Yale in the proposed absorption of Mexico in 1847-8. Baron Spech von Sternberg, the German Commissioner to Samoa, reviewed the history of the Samoan question, his account being supplemented by an entertaining explanation by Mr. E. V. Morgan, secretary to the Commission, of the peculiar racial and social difficulties with which the Commissioners had to deal. Finally, in a thoughtful paper on democracy and diplomacy, Prof. Macvane of Harvard pointed out the difficulties of diplomacy in a country of yellow journals and popular clamor, and pleaded again for international arbitration.

The preparation and discussion of formal papers do not compass the active work of the Association. Highly organized and effectively administered, its stimulating and directing force in historical research and publication is every year becoming more important. The Historical Manuscripts Commission, at present engaged upon the preparation of the Calhoun correspondence for publication, continues, of course, though with considerable change of personnel; Prof. J. Franklin Jameson retiring from the chairmanship, and Mr. R. G. Thwaites succeeding. The Association did not fail to put

on record its appreciation of the great service to historical scholarship rendered by Prof. Jameson as a member of the Commission. The committee on colonies and dependencies contemplate a broad study of their assigned field, and the committee on the Justin Winsor prize, this year again unawarded, propose to readjust the administration of that encouragement to research in such a way as to insure more general competition for it. Three new activities are launched this year: a Public Archives Commission, to investigate the condition and character of national, State, and local records, and facilitate their use by students; a committee to consider the preparation of a monographic history of the United States; and a committee to secure, if possible, the deposit in the Library of Congress of such documents and papers, not in current use, as are now dispersed among the various departments in Washington. That the Association is able to address itself to these large and manifold undertakings, some of which, like the Historical Manuscripts Commission and the Public Archives Commission, must plan their work for years to come, is due to the rapidly growing membership, now numbering more than 1,400, and to the skill with which the finances of the Association have been managed.

Never has the Association been more royally entertained. With no sacrifice of scholarly and professional concentration, the executive committee provided richly for the comfort and pleasure of members and their friends. A luncheon at the new building of the Massachusetts Historical Society as guests of Mr. Charles Francis Adams; a reception by President and Mrs. Rhodes; "smokers" at the Technology and Algonquin Clubs for the men, and a reception and tea at Radcliffe College and Craigie House for the ladies; open doors at the Public Library and Museum of Fine Arts; a luncheon at Harvard as the guests of the University, and a reception at Wellesley as guests of the College; the hospitalities of the University Club for all who chose to avail themselves of them; and a dinner at the Brunswick Hotel in which 150 members joined—make up the list of social functions which the committee had exerted itself to provide. No one who was present at the luncheon in Memorial Hall will soon forget the consummate grace and power with which President Eliot presided, as none who sat at the tables at the Brunswick will forget Col. Higginson's eloquent plea for political and civil freedom, as no less a charge upon us now than in his young manhood of fifty years ago. The Association goes next year to Detroit, with Edward Eggleston as President.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

PARIS, December 14, 1899.

France, as a nation, takes a not undue pride in the Suez Canal, and a few days ago a gigantic statue was placed at the entrance to the canal, in honor of the man who was long familiarly called "le grand Français." This ceremony took place on the thirtieth anniversary of the inauguration of the great work. Renan, who received Lesseps into the French Academy, reminded his audience that the cutting of a Suez canal was one of the dreams of antiquity; that Leibnitz recommended it to Louis XIV.; that the French Directory put it in its pro-

gramme when it undertook the expedition to Egypt.

"As in the time of Alexander," said Renan, "the conquest of arms was a conquest of science. The 24th of December, 1798, our illustrious colleague, Gen. Bonaparte, left Cairo, accompanied by Berthier, Monge, Berthollet, and several other members of the Institute, and of certain merchants who had obtained permission to join his escort. On the 30th he found, to the north of Suez, the remains of the ancient canal, and followed it for five leagues; on the 3d of January, 1799, he saw near Belbes the other extremity of the canal of the Pharaohs. The researches of the Egyptian Commission were the starting-point of all the subsequent designs. One error only, the belief in an inequality of the levels of the two seas (always denied by Laplace and Fourier), was mixed with these valuable researches, and it delayed for half a century the execution of the work planned by the heroic engineers of 1798."

The origin of the enterprise goes back to 1854. Mehemet Ali was in the Libyan Desert with eleven thousand men, and his camp was near Lake Mareotis when he was joined by Lesseps, who had known him in Paris. Lesseps obtained there the concession of the canal. He made a preliminary exploration of the country with Mougel and Linant Bey; he verified the equality of the level of the two seas, which had already been demonstrated by Paulin-Talabot, the creator of the railway which joins Paris, by way of Lyons, with Marseilles.

Notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, then English Ambassador at Constantinople, Lesseps secured the approbation of the Grand Vizier. After some negotiations, it was agreed between the Governments of France and of England that the two would leave the affair of the Suez Isthmus to itself, and would consider it a mere commercial and industrial enterprise. M. de Lesseps met, nevertheless, with much opposition in England. Lord Palmerston was very hostile to the project, and his hostility was felt at Constantinople. After four years of appeals to public opinion, Lesseps dared to make an appeal to the European public. The capital of the company was fixed at two hundred millions of francs, divided into 400,000 shares of 500 francs. He reserved 85,506 shares to England, Austria, Russia, and the United States; the rest was offered to the French public. The emission was covered, and the Society was legally constituted.

The work to be executed extended for 130 kilometres, and five years were judged necessary for the maritime canal, which was to be eight metres deep and to have a breadth on its surface of fifty-six metres. It is not easy to imagine now all the difficulties with which Lesseps had to contend, financial, technical, economical. Mehemet's successor, Said, died in 1863, and was replaced by Ismail Pasha, who received the title of Khedive, and substituted free labor for the forced labor or *corvée*. It was thought that this reform would ruin the company, but the use of improved and gigantic dredging-machines saved it. The inauguration of the Canal took place on the 17th of November, 1869, with great pomp. The Empress Eugénie, the Emperor of Austria, the Khedive Ismail, the Princess of Holland, the heirs presumptive of the crowns of Prussia and of the Netherlands, a host of Russian and German princes, witnessed the ceremony, as well as the Emir Abd-el-Kader. Who would have believed, in those triumphant days, that not many months afterwards the Empress Eugénie

would have to flee from the palace of the Tuileries, and, curiously enough, that M. de Lesseps would be one of the few friends to help her to escape?

From the day of the inauguration to the end of 1870, 486 ships crossed the isthmus through the Canal. The cost of construction had been, as we have said, estimated at 200,000,000; but in 1870 the Company had expended as much as 432,000,000, and was obliged to issue debentures and to make loans. The financial difficulties became very great, but the receipts rose gradually; they amounted in 1871 to 7,595,000 francs, in 1872 to 14,377,000, in 1873 to 20,850,000, in 1874 to 22,667,000. In the year 1875 the Khedive Ismail, whose expenses had been excessive, sold the 176,602 shares which he possessed to the English Government at the price of a hundred millions of francs, which represented a value of 568 francs per share. When these shares were offered to England by the Khedive, Parliament was not in session, but Lord Beaconsfield boldly bought the shares, had them paid for temporarily by the Rothschilds, and asked Parliament for a bill of indemnity, which he had no difficulty in obtaining. In consequence of this purchase, the English Government obtained a representation on the board of directors. If the English shares were sold at the present market value, England's profit would be about 528,000,000 francs.

The bombardment of Alexandria in 1882 and the victory of Tel el-Kebir gave England a predominant influence in Egypt. M. de Freycinet asked the Chamber for a credit with a view to the protection of the Canal; this credit was refused by 416 votes to 75, and the French fleet retired from the Egyptian waters. The English became practically the masters of Egypt; but they did not abuse their victory with regard to the Canal. Lord Granville, at the beginning of 1883, addressed a circular to the great Powers; an international commission was appointed and sat in Paris; the discussion lasted several years, and an international convention was signed on the 29th of June, 1888, in virtue of which the neutrality of the Suez Canal was formally recognized. England, notwithstanding her peculiar situation, enjoys no privilege in the Canal and has no right of police over it.

By degrees, many improvements have been executed in the Canal, so as to shorten the time of passage. In 1882, ships spent nearly fifty-four hours in transit. Much time was lost in the places where the ships passed each other and during the night. Methods had to be devised to secure continuity in the passage—the Canal had to be deepened and widened; but the success of the enterprise was such that money could be easily found for these improvements. The use of electric light on the sides of the Canal and on the ships made navigation as easy by night as by day, and nearly doubled the capacity of the Canal. Three cities owe their existence to the Canal—Port Said, Ismailia, and Port Tewfik; the first being the only one which has a true commercial importance. Ships do not stop any more at Suez, but coal at Port Said. This place has now 49,000 inhabitants, of which number the Egyptians and the Arabs count for 24,000. Coal is the chief item of importation to Port Said; more than a million tons being brought yearly to it.

At the late meeting of the British Association at Dover, Sir William White made

a report on the progress of steam navigation, and gave curious statistics on the subject, from 1870 to 1898. In the course of twenty-eight years, the net tonnage which passed the Suez Canal rose gradually from 436,609 to 9,238,603 tons; the receipts from the special navigation duty on the Canal rose, in the same period from 4,345,758 to 82,657,420 francs. The number of passengers increased from 26,758 to 219,554, and the receipts arising from the passenger tax from 263,552 to 2,195,545 francs. Postal navigation, which assures rapid and regular communication between the various countries of Europe and the East, and which receives Government subventions, has increased rapidly and is constantly increasing. In the present state of the East it may be said that India absorbs nearly 50 per cent. of the transit. This proportion explains the immense importance which England attaches and is obliged to attach to the Suez Canal. The population of India exceeds 250,000,000 of inhabitants; England has built in her vast Indian Empire more than 35,000 kilometres of railroads, which in 1898 transported 151,000,000 of passengers and 36 million tons of merchandise. It is not surprising if this great development of India has contributed to the movement of merchandise between Europe and India. The regions which, after India, draw the largest proportion of traffic to the Canal are the French colonies of Indo-China, China, and Japan. China proper and Mantchuria have between them a population nearly equal to that of the whole of Europe—that is to say, 350,000,000 to 360,000,000 inhabitants. All the European nations are eager to trade with China, to build her railroads, to increase their sphere of influence in that enormous and still mysterious Empire. The number of free ports is now thirty-four, and the rivers in all the provinces having treaty ports have been opened to navigation. The inner lines of customs, which are a great inconvenience to trade, will by degrees be removed.

To sum up, the maritime movement of the Suez Canal had attained in 1898 more than nine millions of tons; the increase in the fifteen years which preceded 1898, was 15 per cent. It is highly probable that the same rate of increase will continue, and that in 1903 from ten to eleven millions will go through the Canal.

Correspondence.

THE STRUGGLE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION: 9118.

SIR: The present unfortunate war between the English and the Dutch in South Africa recalls vividly the collisions between the two nationalities in the past, and the cause of their unnatural quarrels. Springing from a common stock, menaced by the same enemies, actuated by similar political impulses, and inspired by the same religious reform movements, the two nations in bygone days should always have been friends; but commercial rivalry and opposing trade interests intervened to make them foes.

Old Holland has now settled down to a comfortable old age, having made her fortune, and being content to enjoy it in peace, reaping the benefits of past enterprise from her still vast Oriental empire. But her chil-

dren at the Antipodes, actuated by the stubborn spirit of their ancestors, have challenged England by the arbitrament of war to make good her claim to be the supreme Power in South Africa, as their forefathers contested England's right under Cromwell and Charles II. to be the mistress of the sea.

The trade of the Orient was, in the seventeenth century as now, the great cause of jealousy among commercial nations. The English East India Company was created in 1599, and the Dutch in 1602. They were rivals from the start. Strange to say, the East India question is again involved in this fresh English-Dutch collision. It was the India trade in the hands of the Dutch East India Company that gave Holland her naval and commercial importance after she had so gloriously thrown off the shackles of Spain. And it was Holland's jealousy of England's commercial growth and of her inroads on her Eastern market that irritated the pride of the two peoples, and embittered their relations until they flew at each other's throats. It was as a half-way house to England that the Cape Colony was established by the Dutch in 1652, and as such it became of supreme importance in Holland's trade. Had she retained her full commercial vigor, she would not have submitted as meekly as she did to its conquest by the British in 1806. Conditions are somewhat changed to-day. The Suez Canal gives a short cut to the Orient. One line of railroad is already completed connecting the North Atlantic with the North Pacific, and others are projected. But, nevertheless, the great pathway of the sea is, and will continue to be, the highway of commerce. It can never be obstructed nor blown up. Yet it can be used effectively only by steam vessels, and steam vessels must have coal; and therefore coaling stations are as essential to a great naval Power as the sea itself. Cape Town is the corner shop, and Cape Colony the corner block, of the two highways of the Atlantic and Pacific; and England will cease to be the naval Power she is, as certainly as Holland has shrunk to a shadow of what she once was, if she allows so vital a link in the long chain of naval stations which bind her commercial centres with her foreign markets to be snapped.

There is no proof that any such far-reaching schemes as a resuscitation of Holland's former greatness through the infusion of young Dutch blood has ever entered the minds of the South African Dutch; but there is good reason to suppose that their plans of empire are on as magnificent a scale as their preparations for war. The influx of wealth from the gold mines excited their imagination. Instead of putting it into their pockets, as was supposed, they have put it into armaments. As we ourselves know, the ideas of national greatness grow with their gratification, and nothing stimulates magnificent national aspirations as sensitively as military success. That the Boers enjoyed in 1881, and it has influenced their policy ever since. It would be astonishing, therefore, if hopes were not excited of recreating a new Dutch republic out of human elements as sturdy as those which set Spain at defiance, by men inspired by religious fervor as free from the taint of either ritualism or scepticism as that which steeled the soldiers of William the Silent. There is every reason for supposing that the Afrikaner Bond has had more

intricate ramifications than was ever dreamed of by the political agents of Great Britain, and that the military preparations throughout all South Africa were on a scale not even suspected by Englishmen living among the Dutch themselves. It is not unfair, therefore, to assume that brilliant statesmen like Dr. Leyds and President Steyn, and sturdy, silent, profound diplomats like Krüger, and generals as thoroughly versed in the art of war as Joubert, should have dreamed dreams not only of complete independence, but of creating another New Netherland, which at any rate would be free from absorption by the Power that engulfed the struggling colony of Dutchmen on the Hudson.

One thing is certain, that England is face to face with another crisis in her history; that Englishmen the world over now realize it, and are prepared to act as one man in meeting it. Whatever may have been the exciting cause of the trouble—probably unjust distrust on one side and disregard for national sensibilities on the other—the Dutch of South Africa have evidently been preparing for many a day to throw off all dependence on England, and have been waiting till either a favorable opportunity occurred of forcing a quarrel, or till compelled to unmask their batteries by Britain's advance. The world at large is interested in the struggle, inasmuch as no commercial nation can view with indifference the transfer from one Power to another of such a pivotal point in the earth's geographical and commercial surface as the Cape Colony.

JAMES DOUGLAS:

NEW YORK, December 23, 1899.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow an American who, from fourteen years' residence in England, should know something of the feeling in at least one of its centres, to protest against the misleading effect of some resolutions recently proposed in sympathy with the Boers, though, happily, not carried? Whatever the point in this deplorable war may or may not be, one thing is certain, that the English are in no sense whatever endeavoring to crush republicanism. The two sister states might have been as radical as even French socialism could wish them to have been, but it would have had nothing to do with the terrible conflict. The English were simply forced into war by personal insolence, making commercial grievances more intolerable. No English person could live in the Transvaal without receiving affronts such as would be met in the West by a "shot on sight." The Boers either sold their gold-bearing lands, or else protected the vendors, because they had not the acumen nor capital to work them at a profit; and then they repented of their bargain, and began to criticise the fine mining town which grew up on the spot, and proceeded to impose their unbounded taxations and disqualifying regulations. Bad morals in a mining city, as anywhere else, are sickening indeed, but the human subject is still a very rudimental being, and it ill becomes those who could make a joke on the "place of spiritual punishment" (hell, in plain words) being "within the city limits" of a great emporium, to express astonishment at a miners' settlement. I write with no desire to screen speculators, but I do hope that all honest people will remember that combinations of capital are inevitable. We have the poor always

with us, but we (likewise) cannot get rid of the rich.

But whatever the merits or demerits of the case may be, "the heroic struggles" of the Boers are in no sense intended to defend republican institutions as such, much less their hearths and homes—they have troubled many another person's hearth and home; and it is political blasphemy to hint at such a thing, much less to formulate it in a resolution. England takes kindly to republics, and for more reasons than one. Imagine how she would have liked it if the two sister republics had been two "brother kingdoms." If the Boers have done what they have done in the green tree, what would they have done in the dry? It ill becomes any section of Americans, whose land was saved by England so very short a time ago, to rail at her as if she were attempting to crush what she would gladly have nurtured. She wishes to crush insolence and unfair dealing, and not republics.

Yours, etc.,

L. H. MILLS.

OXFORD, December 14, 1899.

THE SEAT OF THE WASHINGTONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Upon Washington's ancestry, the subject of a most interesting paper by Mr. W. H. Whitmore in your issue of September 21, which I have just read, it seems to me that I may be able to throw some light, inasmuch as what I have to say on it fits in with Washington's own statement, as quoted by Mr. Whitmore: "I have often heard others of the family, older than myself, say that our ancestor who first settled in this country came from one of the Northern Counties of England, but whether from Lancashire or Yorkshire or one still more northerly, I do not precisely remember."

In the year 1865 or 1866, my father, Thomas Farrer, bought the farm of Gateside in the township (in this part of England a township is a tract of country containing probably three or four thousand acres, and is, I believe, a subdivision of a parish) of Howgill, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and lived there until he died in 1876. When he bought it, he told me that the tradition was attached to it that it had been the home and property of the Washingtons before they went to America. He also told me that an old stone barn on it, which was larger than is usually found on a farm of the size (about seventy acres, if I recollect aright) of Gateside, was said to have been built by a Washington for the purpose of storing his wool at a time when the price for wool was too low to satisfy him. This would be likely to be the case, because the ownership of Gateside carried with it the right to pasture a considerable number of sheep on Howgill Fell.

Gateside is in the Parish of Sedbergh, from which town it is distant about four miles—probably less. It is situated on the road between Sedbergh and Low Borough Bridge, a place on the River Lune, consisting, if I recollect aright, of a solitary inn, and important only because an ancient cattle-fair is held there once a year. This road runs between the house and the farm-buildings, and the homestead is distant about half a mile from the Lune, which there separates the Counties of Yorkshire and Westmorland. The nearest railway station is Lowgill, which is distant

about a mile and a half; but when I left home, now over thirty years ago, there was nothing at Lowgill but the station buildings and a few cottages for railway employees. Lowgill station is on the main London and North Western line, and is the junction-station where the line which passes Leeds, Skipton, Ingleton, Kirkby Lonsdale, and Sedbergh joins the main line. There is no town or village nearer to Gateside than Sedbergh.

If the tradition I have given be true, it is practically certain that Washington's English forefathers were, like my own, whose old homesteads have all been within four or five miles of Gateside, "dalesmen" and "statesmen" (estatesmen) or yeomen—that is to say, farmers who owned the land they farmed.

It is possible that the Sedbergh Parish registers may yield some information in regard to Washington's family; but a search which I had occasion to make during a visit home some twenty years ago of the registers of the adjoining Parish of Kendal, showed me that, previous to the beginning of last century, they had not been very well kept.

I may state that Gateside now belongs to my only brother; but he does not live there, but at another farm of his in Lambrigg, about five miles distant; and a tenant is probably in occupation of the farm. The house is a rather old stone building, but I should think not so old as to have been dwelt in by the Washingtons. Although a single building, it is usually occupied by two families, the front and one end being for the gentler folks, and the remainder for the farmer who rents the land. After my father's death, the gentler-folks' part was, I believe, let to the widow of a clergyman. The house, in fact, is such as would be likely to be built by a well-to-do "statesman" for his own use.

In regard to my father as an authority for this tradition, I may state that he was born in 1804 at Wythmoor, in the Township of Lambrigg, in the County of Westmorland. As Wythmoor is distant only about four miles from Gateside, and the loss of the American colonies was then a recent event, there would most likely be much interest taken in Washington during my father's boyhood; and his father, who had been born in 1767 in the adjacent township of Grayrigg at the farm of Blacketbottom, which is about five miles from Gateside, would have been likely to have told him of the tradition. It is possible, also, that some special reason may have existed for my family retaining their interest in their old neighbors, the Washingtons; but of this I have received no tradition. Since I left home, the old people who knew of the tradition will have died; and it may even be that by this time it has been lost to the district altogether.

If this tradition is established as a fact, and it is shown that our old north-country "dale" stock has furnished a man who played such a part and carried himself so honorably in the world as did George Washington, I shall, of course, be very proud; but I should be infinitely prouder if a "dalesman" were to play a great part in welding together the two separated parts of our race.—I am, sir, faithfully yours,

WILLIAM FARRER.

P. S.—As it is now over thirty years since I was at Gateside, and I only resided a few

times and for short intervals at my father's house after he went to live there, it may be that I have not been quite accurate in some of the distances I have given: W. F. LAMBRIGG, QUEANBYAN, NEW SOUTH WALES, November 15, 1899.

[We print the above letter since so much has been said about the Washingtons of Yorkshire as a possible link in the pedigree of George Washington; but we must say that the present bit of evidence is very shadowy, as the authenticated facts will show.

The two emigrants, John and Lawrence, were born in 1634 and 1635, in Tring. Their father, Rev. Lawrence W., was born in 1602, in Northamptonshire, as his matriculation record shows, being the son of Lawrence Washington of Brington, who was son of Robert Washington of Sulgrave, County Northampton, whose father, Lawrence, Mayor of Northampton, was the grantee of Sulgrave, 30 Hen. VIII., A. D. 1539. We know that Rev. Lawrence W. married and had children at Tring, County Hertford, 1635-1641, soon after he became a Fellow of Brasenose College, Oxford. In 1633 he obtained the living of Purlleigh in Essex, from which he was expelled in 1643, and he then lived in poverty at Maldon until his death in 1652. Thus, we have five generations of the ancestors, covering the period from A. D. 1539 to 1652, all accounted for as living in Northamptonshire and Essex. Before that, three generations are said to have lived in Lancashire; but we need not go so far back.

Mr. Farrer's father was born in 1804; and his grandfather in 1767, and it is only thought possible that the latter gave the tradition about the Washingtons. This would, at best, be a whole century, after the emigrants left for Virginia; and when they went, their property and interests were clearly connected with Tring in Hertfordshire. For two centuries, therefore, we can see no possibility of any of George Washington's ancestors having lived at Sedbergh, to say nothing of the improbability of any tradition of such residence surviving during a period when the Washingtons were of no account. In fact, until 1775, no Englishman, especially in a small village, would have any reason to ask who the Washingtons were. Even in Virginia in 1775, no one unconnected with the family could have told who George Washington's great-grandfather, the emigrant, was. How, then, could the villagers at Sedbergh know it? The emigrants were certainly in Virginia in 1677. There were Washingtons in Yorkshire, and one may have lived at Sedbergh. There were several emigrants of the name who came to America; but no one cares for any line except the one glorified by the immortal George.—ED. NATION.]

IRREGULAR DEGREES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A prominent religious weekly had, not long since, in its personal items the following announcement: "The Western University of Chicago, Ill., has conferred, as the result of examination, the degree of Ph.D. on the Rev. Mr. —, rector of — Church," etc. In its last number it says: "In reference to the statement published in this column, December 9, that the Western University of Chicago had conferred the degree of Ph.D., we are informed that the Western University, though chartered, has no resident faculty or college buildings."

The last report of the Department of Education of the State of Illinois in its list of colleges does not mention the name of this institution, neither does the last report of the United States Commissioner of Education.

The bestowal of degrees by one other institution in Chicago in an irregular manner has previously occasioned public protest. Is it not possible for educators in Illinois to secure State control of advanced degrees? The reckless manner in which such degrees are conferred in several professional schools of Chicago, has led to Government action in France against the holders of all similar American degrees. H.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, December 25, 1899.

"IMMIGRANT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the notice of the last section of the Oxford Dictionary, your reviewer referred to "the American origin of *immigrant* in 1792, its inventor being Jeremy Belknap" (*Nation*, November 9, p. 354). Three years earlier, Jedidiah Morse had written: "Besides the Dutch and English already mentioned, there are in this state [New York] many immigrants from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and some few from France" (*American Geography*, 1789, ix., 253).

There is also a still earlier alleged example. On January 15, 1788, in the Massachusetts Convention for ratifying the Federal Constitution, Rufus King is reported to have spoken as follows: "The immigrants from Massachusetts, who settled on Connecticut River, appointed representatives to meet in the General Court of that colony for only six months." (*In Life & Corr.*, 1894, i., 296, taken from Elliot's *Debates*, 11, 35.) Suspecting that there might be an error, I examined two editions (1827, 1861) of Elliot and three editions (1788, 1808, 1856) of the *Debates, Resolutions, and Proceedings* of the Massachusetts Convention, and found that in all five the word in question reads "emigrants." Hence Morse's use of *immigrant* in 1789 is the earliest thus far recorded. A. M.

BOSTON, December 30, 1899.

Notes.

The authorized biography of the late Dwight L. Moody is to be prepared by his son, William Revell Moody, who desires that any letters or information of special interest for the work may be addressed to him at East Northfield, Mass.

In furtherance of an historical task, Miss Alice B. Adams, No. 93 Hancock Street,

Auburndale, Mass., desires to learn where she may find the following documents: Reports of the American Convention of Delegates for the Abolition of Slavery, for the years between 1798 and 1809 (there should be six of them); the Report of the same Convention for the year 1815; and the ninth volume (or, new series, vol. 3) of the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*, from August, 1828, to January 3, 1829.

'Men and Things I Saw in Civil War Days' is a collection of sketches of a dozen prominent men of the civil war, mostly generals in command of armies, but including Lincoln and Johnson. James F. Rusling, the author, was an officer in the Quartermaster's Department, both in the field and at supply depots, and has put his recollections of leading men he met into lively chapters, which must be read as presentations of off-hand opinions and predilections, rather than critical estimates of historical value. The biographical sketches are followed by a hundred and fifty pages of the author's private letters of the period, containing a good deal of interesting matter, which would have been improved by passing through the hands of an editor of severe good taste, condensing and making excerpts, with suppression of the too abundant "display" letterheads, to use a printer's phrase. The book is well printed and the portraits are generally well chosen. Eaton & Mains are the publishers.

Those who wish a small Bible dictionary and who are satisfied with the position of the Princeton School, will find exactly what they want in the 'Dictionary of the Bible,' by Prof. John D. Davis of the Princeton Theological Seminary (Philadelphia: The Westminster Press). It is a very straightforward, plain little book of some 800 pages; there is no doubt as to its meaning, and that meaning belongs to the Year One. Some one said of Dr. Hodge that he knew all the systems of philosophy and all the different ways of being an unbeliever, and they had all had no effect on him. Here, too, there is no trace of effect by modern criticism. The book is adapted for those who can walk unshakingly in the old paths; those who are already wandering in darkness will find no help in it.

The last instalment of Hugo's 'Choses Vues,' recently noticed at some length by our Paris correspondent, has been published in an English dress by the Messrs. Dillingham. This translation, by Mr. John W. Harding, has the merit of clinging to the text, so closely as to reproduce with great accuracy the jerky effect of Hugo's staccato sentences. Further, it is for the most part correct in its renderings. But when the original says, of an old book "n'ayant plus de sa reliure, que le dos," the translator should give some explanation for his stating (p. 20) that "the binding was missing from the back." The *front-door* is a doubtful equivalent for "porte-cochère." Without discussing either the general question of slang or its international correspondences, we hesitate to accept *chestnut* as admissible, while "galette" passes current in French. Hugo says that Blanqui, when in prison at Vincennes, 'lived chiefly on bread and *pommes crues*; the translator, remembering that *pommes frites* is restaurant French for "fried potatoes," makes out the unfortunate conspirator to have been fed on tubers, not fruits.

So admirable, quaint, and fascinating are

the many stories of the 'Decameron' suited to the taste of the reading public of today that it is surprising how seldom the idea of selection has been adopted. About fifteen years ago Henry Morley reprinted an archaic and most unsatisfactory rendering of some of the stories, but this was one of the cases where the *traduttore* was a veritable *traditore*. The translation was colorless and full of ridiculous blunders. And now comes Mr. Joseph Jacobs with his 'Tales from Boccaccio' (Truslove, Hanson & Comba). He has selected the four well-known stories of Griselda, Torello, Federigo's Falcon, and Lisabetta, and has printed them in a volume which owes a very large part of its attractiveness to Mr. Byam Shaw's illustrations. The choice of stories is a good one, because, apart from their obvious merits, three of them have been incorporated in English literature by Chaucer, Keats, and Tennyson; but we cannot commend Mr. Jacobs's rendering, which is rather a paraphrase than the scholarly translation we had expected. For instance, in the story of Lisabetta, Boccaccio says that her brothers decided to conceal their knowledge of her amour with Lorenzo until a favorable opportunity offered: "Nel quale essi, senza danno o sconcio di loro, questa vergogna, avanti che più andasse innanzi, si potessero torre dal viso"—that is to say, an opportunity to rid themselves of this ignominy before it went any further, whenever it could be done safely. Mr. Jacobs's rendering is as follows: "To the end that, when the time came when they could take vengeance without loss or damage to themselves, it would come about better if they could take him out of sight." Syntax, idiom, and sense are here alike missed. There is plenty of this sort of thing and of slipshod English throughout the book, and it is clear that the ideal rendering is still to come.

We can hardly more than mention the extensive 'Treatise on Crystallography,' by Prof. W. J. Lewis, published by the Cambridge University Press (New York: Macmillan). It will be indispensable to all who have to do with crystals. We will, however, permit ourselves a single observation. Seeing that every descriptive notation for a crystal-face is nothing but a way of writing the analytical geometer's equation for the intersection of that plane with the plane at infinity, it would seem that to undertake the study of crystallography without having first mastered the modern methods of plane analytical geometry would be one of those feeble, half-prepared ways of working that vernacular speech calls "slouchy," and which no course of instruction ought to contemplate as admissible. But a student who has thus prepared himself will find a great part of Prof. Lewis's work tedious, because it is needlessly prolix and is complicated with such inessentials as a third dimension. It is true that the final chapter partly remedies this fault; in the same sense that the fatigue of a five-act drama might be said to be relieved if, at the end, the green curtain were to be rung up for a one-act condensation of it. Yet even this supplementary chapter is not as modern as it should be.

From Lemcke & Buechner we receive the 137th issue of the 'Almanach de Gotha,' which flings down the glove to heretics on the century question by speaking of "1900, the last year of the century now closing."

Nevertheless it chooses this last year rather than the first of the twentieth century for turning over a new leaf by a change to a slightly larger form, thus keeping down the number of "signatures"—in other words, the thickness; yet the quantity of matter is greater than ever. In the genealogical portion several improvements are noted, including a hint how to address any member of a family inserted in the 'Almanach.' A new state, "Crete," has swept into the editor's sky; and behold a chapter, "Notice statistique sur les États protégés Colonies des États-Unis," which must swell our protectionist President with pride: Guam, Hawaii, Philippines, "Portorico" (this for the benefit of purists who reject our English name Porto Rico and overlook the Spanish adjective "portorriqueño," Porto Rican); and Cuba. Of the four regulation steel portraits, the most eminent is President Loubet's.

The tenth volume of the 'Cotta'sche Museumsalmanach' since the revival of the annual in 1891 under the editorship of Dr. Otto Braun, has just appeared (Stuttgart). The contents consist of two novels, both excellent, but wholly different in character—"Mater Dolorosa," by Frau Henriette Keller-Jordan, and "Das Stumme Klavier," by Ernst von Müllenbach-Lenbach—and a variety of poems by Martin Greif, Isolde Kurz, Julius Grosse, Max Haftung, Max Kiese-wetter, Irene von Schellander, Eduard Paulus, Carl Weitbrecht, and many other writers of epic and lyric verse. Especially noteworthy are Prince Emil von Schönaich-Carolath's "Hans Habenichts," a series of "Landsknechtlieder," Hermann Lingg's "Carmen Saeculare" in praise of "Die Elektrische Kraft," Wilhelm Hertz's "Lautlose Nacht," and Max Haushofer's "Der Gast der Einsamkeit." There are six full-page illustrations.

The fourth volume of 'Franz Liszt's Briefe, gesammelt und herausgegeben von La Mara' (Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel) contains his letters to the Princess Carolyne Sayn-Wittgenstein. There are 360 letters, all in French and extending over a period of about twelve years, from July, 1847, to December, 1859. They were obtained by the editor from the Princess Marie Hohenlohe, daughter of the Princess Wittgenstein. There are also portraits of Liszt and the Princess, and a biographical sketch of the latter. We may add that a most interesting account of the friendship between the composer and this lady is given by their mutual friend, Malwida von Meysenbug, in her recently published volume, 'Der Lebensabend einer Idealistin.'

A valuable contribution to the already voluminous Bismarck literature is 'Meine Erinnerungen an Bismarck,' by G. v. Willmowski, edited by his son, and just published by Trewendt in Breslau. The author was Bismarck's legal counsellor and a Liberal in politics, and his reminiscences are the more interesting and instructive from the fact that he was not always in sympathy with Bismarck's policy, although fully appreciating his ability and integrity as a statesman. It is a record of intimate intercourse and interchange of thought on public affairs from 1867 to 1870, three eventful years in the history of Germany.

Soon after the death of Ludwig Bamberger, on the 14th of March, it was announced that his reminiscences had been found among his posthumous papers. These

autobiographical records have now been published under the title, 'Erinnerungen von Ludwig Bamberger, aus dem Nachlass herausgegeben von Paul Nathan' (Berlin: Reimer); with a portrait of the deceased and a brief introduction by the editor. The volume begins with charming details of Bamberger's boyhood in Mayence, his native town, followed by descriptions of his life as a student in the University and as a young lawyer. In 1848 he took part in the Revolution, and a year later was a political fugitive in Switzerland and England. Extremely interesting are his experiences as a merchant in Holland, and especially as a banker in Paris, where he associated intimately with Renan, Jules Simon, Crémieux, Sainte-Beuve, Littré, Turgeneff, Caroline Jaubert, Juliette Adam, and other men and women of note in the city on the Seine. The work concludes with his return to Germany and the renewal of his political activity, with characterizations of prominent statesmen and leaders of parliamentary factions, Bismarck, Lasker, Windthorst, Forckenbeck, Twisten, Johann Jacoby, and others. Bamberger is a delightful *causar*; and although he did not live to complete these recollections, which end abruptly and do not include his later brilliant career till his retirement from public life in 1893, they give an attractive and instructive retrospect of the formative period of his development during his sojourn in foreign lands, and are an admirable supplement to the 'Charakteristiken,' 'Studien und Meditationen,' and other essays in the five volumes of his "Gesammelte Schriften" published by Rosenbaum & Hart in Berlin.

Since Cromwell is "in the air," one must mention 'The Cromwell List,' a charming brochure, "being Notes for the Study of Oliver Cromwell," published by the City Library Association of Springfield, Mass. What is singular about this bibliography is, first, that it has special reference to an historical novel, by Arthur Paterson, 'Cromwell's Own,' selected, we are frankly told, not because it is the best novel of its class ever written, "but because it is a new, wholesome story," etc., etc., and fits in with the prevailing Cromwellian revival. (This booming of a work of fiction has evidently great possibilities.) Next it is provided with excerpts from the major poems on the Protector—Milton, Marvell, Byron, Swinburne, Lowell; and, finally, loosely inserted are photographic copies of Bernini's bust of Oliver, an old Dutch print of him, and portraits of Ireton and Vane. The whole is most daintily printed and embellished with initial letters, headpieces, etc., and is put on sale at 25 cents.

An offprint has been made from the United States Fish Commission's Bulletin for 1899 of Capt. R. W. Shufeldt's paper entitled "Experiments in Photography of Live Fishes." This delicate operation, conducted in an aquarium, holds out a great temptation to ambitious amateurs. Capt. Shufeldt's success has been notable, as his beautiful plates show. His experience is set forth for the benefit of whom it may concern.

Mr. Norman Hapgood's article on "The Theatrical Syndicate," in the first number of the *International Monthly* (Macmillan), does not cast much new light upon the subject, but sums up the existing situation very fairly. It bears most severely, if unintentionally, upon the actors who, having

induced some of their associates to join them in a combination against "The Trust," as it is called, promptly deserted them and went over to the enemy for a pecuniary consideration. This inability of actors, on account of their mutual suspicions, jealousies, and rivalries, to stand together, is one of the chief secrets of the Syndicate's power. It is a case of men of business, intent solely upon their own welfare, profiting by the incompetency and general silliness of the geese who lay for them the golden eggs. As yet, the public is not suffering much from the monopoly, which is giving the best of modern plays in very creditable style. The great evils of the system, upon which Mr. Hapgood does not sufficiently insist, are that the men who have seized upon the direction of the theatre know nothing and care nothing about it except as a speculation, and have devised a scheme which, although it is putting money into their pockets, and, in a measure, into those of actors also, is striking at the very roots of the "profession," by cutting off the means of good theatrical education. There will be good plays in the future, as there have been in the past, but, unless there is a speedy change for the better, there will be no one capable of acting them.

Mr. Hapgood's article is one of five (but not the fifth, as represented in the unpaginated table of contents on the cover), the others being "Later Evolutions of French Criticism," by Edouard Rod; "Influence of the Sun upon the Formation of the Earth's Surface," by Prof. N. S. Shaler; "Organization among American Artists," by Charles De Kay; and "Recent Advance in Physical Science," by Prof. John Trowbridge. The number gives evidence of haste in preparation. The running-title, *International Monthly*, is repeated on every page, thus making it extremely difficult to find a given article; and the proof-reading leaves much to be desired.

The principal article in the *Geographical Journal* for December is Mr. W. R. Rickmers's account of his travels in eastern Bokhara, of which the most interesting part is the description of the gold-washing in the mountain valleys. The yearly output is estimated at \$150,000, "a mere trifle considering the potentialities of the alluvial deposits." By the primitive method of treating the gravel and sand "all gold in the shape of dust is lost, some of the rougher particles only being secured." The deposits are very extensive, the gold occurring "exclusively in tablet form, grains and nuggets being nowhere found." Mr. C. Raymond Beazley gives an estimate and summary of what has been done recently for the study of mediæval geography, and Mr. L. H. Moseley describes some little-known regions in the valley of the Benue, the eastern tributary of the Niger. He passed through a district in which, though the natives go entirely naked, "save for a beautifully woven grass cap," they build "large two and three-story houses, beautifully made of a hard red clay over a foundation of fan-palm stalks, having windows and doors with well-fitting frames, roofs of a pyramid shape, with rafters of the same palm, perfectly thatched with special grass. Furniture of a useful and comfortable kind, consisting of well-made bamboo beds, wooden chairs, and couches, is found inside. The formation of the chief town is quite European in its style—straight, wide roads,

with squares at intervals, the houses being built with even frontage and the whole kept beautifully clean."

The Consular Reports for December contains a detailed description of an electric dredge just built at Hoboken, near Antwerp, for the River Volga. The entire equipment was supplied by the General Electric Company of New York, and it was demonstrated at the official trial that "the electric features have manifestly added enormously to the effective use of the dredge, and have minimized all possible interference with commerce." Other articles are upon the dried-beef industry of Uruguay and the Argentine Republic, the motor-carriage exposition at Berlin, with plates, and French savings banks, in which children are largely represented as depositors. "In the common schools the children deposit with their teachers from one sou upward, and a representative of the savings bank comes around once a month to collect these little hoards. If a child deposits but one sou, he receives in return a very small *livret*, or bank-book. When his deposits reach the sum of one franc, his importance entitles him to a "grand *livret*." An interesting list of flowers, grasses, vegetables, and grain grown in the Yukon territory shows the agricultural possibilities of the Klondike. Wheat sown May 22 was harvested August 28. The season lasts five months in the lowlands and two to four weeks longer on the hillsides with southern exposure.

Thousands of suburban residents, tourists, pleasure-seekers on foot or on the wheel, owners (actual or prospective) of real estate, have profited by the maps forming collectively the topographical State Atlas of New Jersey. This pioneer work, begun in the lifetime of the late Prof. George H. Cook, State Geologist, could not fail, after the lapse of a decade, to be out of date in more than one particular, especially in densely peopled and rapidly growing sections. A resurvey was accordingly undertaken last year, but no longer on a scale of one inch to the mile. The new sheets give nearly two and a half inches to the mile, and are blocked out quite differently from the old. They are about 21x30 inches in dimension, and, while preserving the figured contour lines, the roads, the shore and river soundings, take notice of some economic features such as quarries and pits, reservoirs and pumping stations, cemeteries, steam and electric railways, etc. Four sheets have thus far appeared, designated respectively Jersey City, Newark, Paterson, and Hackensack, and embracing the environment of those places. They are already for sale, at the old price of twenty-five cents apiece, and may be had on order at the office of the Geological Survey at Trenton.

Concerning the 'Lectures on Memory Culture, consisting of the Famous Lectures Delivered throughout the United States and England,' etc., by "Dr. Edward Pick, Ph.D., M.A.," etc., etc. (E. L. Kellogg & Co.), Prof. James certifies that "there is absolutely no element of charlatanry about them," and that they "are based on solid psychological principles." For a man who appeals to the million to unite those two contrary virtues is harder than to pass through the eye of a needle, since the profession of psychology, like that of medicine, inculcates a little imposing upon people. The mnemotechnic systems of Loissette and White, as well as earlier ones, whose absurdities Dr. Pick puts

in a strong light, were likewise based on some sound psychological principles; only they unfortunately left others out of view. Dr. Pick does much better, and it will undoubtedly surprise most people to find, for instance, that in from three to five minutes they can indelibly impress upon their memory all the French nouns which are feminine by exception. Yet Dr. Pick does not entirely escape the old fault of leaving out of account some of the elements of the problem. The problem is to find a method of establishing a mental association such that a given kind of experience shall enable us voluntarily to recall a number or a word. For this purpose, the first condition to be remarked is that association is between pairs of ideas, and of this principle Dr. Pick makes proper use. The second thing to be remarked is that the suggestion is to have two steps, namely: first, the suggesting experience is to awaken an act of will, not deliberate but spontaneous; and, second, that act of will is to call up the desired word or number. Now an act of will, or what is essentially the same thing, occurs only as an inseparable part of a physiological reaction; and consequently such a reaction must enter into the process of learning. If a person once has a tooth filled by a French dentist, he will never forget the word *plomber*, because a strong reaction has taken place in the learning. For this reason, not to speak of another, in learning a language we ought to associate the foreign words directly with experiences of the things or actions they signify, and not directly with English words. But this is not the only principle that Dr. Pick seems to overlook.

—Mr. C. S. Terry's 'Life and Campaigns of Alexander Leslie' (Longmans) is not so much a continuous biography as a detailed study of nine years, 1638-47. During the Swedish period of the Thirty Years' War, Leslie was a prominent staff officer, and merited the rewards of Gustavus Adolphus by his steadiness and caution. Even before Gustavus landed at Usedom, Leslie had distinguished himself greatly by the successful defence of Stralsund, 1628, at a time when Wallenstein was trying by every expedient to reduce it. Soon after the final descent of the Swedes upon Pomerania, the Scottish adventurer became, by the capture of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, governor of an important city. He was not present at Breitenfeld, at the passage of the Lech, nor at Lützen, but, after the King's death, he saw much service, and finally gained a Field-Marshal's baton. His German campaigns brought him wealth, which he carefully secured by the purchase of two earldoms in his native island. In 1638 Queen Christina released him from her service, and he returned home just at the moment when Scotland needed the services of a skilled commander. There is nothing whatever about the character of Leslie which can awaken enthusiasm, and it is not strange that he should have waited so long for a biographer. Mr. Terry's chief interest in him arises from the nature of the part he took in the contest which arrayed on British soil the three armies of Charles, of the Parliament, and of Scotland. The action of the book centres around Marston Moor more than around any other battle, and Mr. Terry forcibly supports the thesis that Scottish assistance there was indispensable to Cromwell's success. Before the fight, Leslie had swept the

royal garrisons from the northern counties, and, despite ill-founded charges which have been brought against his courage, his part in securing the victory yields only to that of Cromwell himself. Indeed, Mr. Terry, when distributing the laurels, says: "Apart from the contribution of individuals, the victory was shared perhaps in equal proportions by the left wing of the horse and the right wing of the foot, by Cromwell's and Leslie's troopers and the Scottish musketeers and pikemen." After Charles's surrender at Newark, Leslie was placed in a delicate position, from which he issued without having done anything to embroil the two kingdoms still further. Mr. Terry really begins his story at the First Bishops' War, and closes it at the moment when the Scotch were paid off for the surrender of their king. Into the Dunbar campaign, where David rather than Alexander Leslie met defeat, he does not enter, although his appendix contains a number of documents relating to it. As an essay on a striking phase of military history, this book is valuable. Moreover, it escapes all suspicion of having been merely "cribbed" from Firth and Gardiner.

Last year Prof. Henry Simonsfeld delivered before the Royal Academy of Munich a memorial oration on Wilhelm von Riehl, in which he analyzed Riehl's position as an historian of civilization. This address has since been published by the Academy in a somewhat augmented form, under the title 'Wilhelm von Riehl als Kulturhistoriker' (Munich: Franz)—a well-merited distinction, both on account of the writer whose characteristic traits are here most luminously brought out, and by reason of the interest attaching to the often discussed question of the best aims and methods of historical study. Briefly stated, Riehl's lasting contribution to the stock of human culture is found by Prof. Simonsfeld to be a twofold one. As an artist, he is the undisputed master—if we except Gustav Freytag—of German historical genre painting. As an investigator and thinker, he stands midway between the individualists and the collectivists. Few works probably of the last fifty years have given a stronger impulse to the sociological study of history in all its relations—political, religious, literary, artistic—than Riehl's 'Land und Leute,' or 'Die bürgerliche Gesellschaft,' and it can with probability be said that, but for his activity, the present school of collectivist historians of civilization would not be what it is. On the other hand, no one could be more explicit than Riehl in the assertion of individuality as one of the prime forces in the history of human progress, and it is well worth while to quote at least one of his many declarations on this point, brought together by Prof. Simonsfeld. "The age," he says in his 'Kulturhistorische Studien,' "creates the man, and the man helps to create his age. Every productive mind is at the same time child and father, disciple and master of his time. For what does this word 'time' mean but the sum total of simultaneous intellectual tendencies which press upon, subdue, and shape the individual mind? But this individual mind is also a constituent part of the sum total of simultaneous tendencies; and the more fully the individual man is influenced by these tendencies, the more strongly will he influence, subdue, and direct them. He who knows how to combine

these contrasts has the key to the mysterious law of human progress."

—Prof. Otto Harnack, author of 'Die klassische Ästhetik der Deutschen,' has collected his numerous contributions to German literary periodicals, especially the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, in a volume entitled 'Essays und Studien zur Literaturgeschichte' (Brunswick: Vieweg), which is an interesting index of the present drift of literary criticism in German academic circles. While the new literature, the school of Ibsen and Tolstoi, has found, apart from its large popular following, not a few brilliant theoretical champions among independent journalists and writers (such as Edgar Steiger, Paul Schlenker, Otto Brahm), there is, as far as we know, only one university professor in Germany (Prof. Litzmann of Bonn) who has openly expressed his sympathy with the latest phase of German dramatic or novelistic art. Since one of the principal functions of universities consists in the preservation of old wisdom, this is perhaps a natural and wholesome condition of things, although the new literature would undoubtedly gain much from a somewhat friendlier and more active interest of the academic critics. Prof. Harnack especially, with his keen and deep understanding of what constitute the essential elements of the greatness of classic German literature, would be a most admirable critic and guide for the younger writers of to-day if he chose to give such criticism and guidance; and one cannot help regretting that almost the only reference to Gerhart Hauptmann found in these essays is a most depreciative, if not contemptuous, allusion to his 'Vor Sonnenaufgang.' This lack, of course, does not take away from the value of the bulk of the essays dealing with Goethe and his circle, in which, naturally enough, Prof. Harnack shows himself a strict adherent of the Classicist doctrine as against the unruly aspirations and heresies of the Romanticists. Perhaps the most suggestive of these essays are two dealing with Goethe's relation to Wilhelm von Humboldt and Heinrich Meyer respectively. New and convincing is the proof of Goethe's indebtedness to Raffael Mengs for his views on the imitation of nature; masterly is the sympathetic analysis of Goethe's 'Pandora'; and truly enlightening is the characterization of Ibsen.

—It is strange how so important a language as Hausa could have been so much neglected. It is spoken by one per cent. of the whole population of the world, and is certainly the language of the future for tropical Africa. Philologically it is of the highest interest and value; it may, perhaps, be the key to the yet unsolved problem of the relation of the languages which we used to call Hamitic to the Semitic group. It has been known since Mungo Park's time, and yet only now have we a dictionary of it that can be called in any degree satisfactory ('Dictionary of the Hausa Language,' by Charles Henry Robinson, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, assisted by W. H. Brooks, B.A.; volume 1, Hausa-English. Cambridge [Eng.]: University Press; New York: Macmillan). Canon Robinson's work is based on the Dictionary of Schön, corrected throughout and much enlarged. He has fitted himself for his task by residence in the Hausa country and by collecting Hausa

MSS., the orthography of which he takes as a basis. Schön, on the contrary, worked entirely by ear, and was unaware that Hausa had any literature or had even been reduced to writing. In his preface, Canon Robinson deals at length with the phonology of the language and with its relations to Semitic. Setting aside his little absurdity about Hanno's expedition and possible Carthaginian influence—from which the Tyrwhitt Scholar who assisted him might surely have saved him—his remarks are full and good. His difficulty that the Arabic element in Hausa belongs rather to the classical language than to the present-day colloquial idiom is not serious. Hausa speakers have long been in touch with speakers of Arabic; even in mediæval times they were known to Arabic geographers. In all probability, also, they have been much in contact with the Bedawi tribes of the Sahara, and from them would pick up words of the Bedawi dialect, which is comparatively near to classical Arabic. Further, it is evident, though Canon Robinson does not notice this, that they derived their alphabet from the Moors and not from Egypt. It is in Moorish Arabic, therefore, that parallels should first be sought. As for the primitive Semitic basis of Hausa, as distinguished from such loan-words, it is to ancient Egyptian that we should look for comparisons, and not to Coptic, as the Canon suggests. The pyramid texts are none too ancient for that purpose. The lexicon has evidently been compiled with diligence and knowledge. It marks a great advance in the study of an important language and is a step towards the solution of the "Hamite"-Semitic question. The get-up of the book is fully worthy of the Cambridge University Press.

—The movement towards developing and extending a common, artificial language for Norway based on the existing peasant dialects is receiving severe criticism from many leading Norwegian writers and public men. This language reform is only one of many expressions—some wise; more, foolish in the extreme—of the national consciousness that has been developing in Norway during the past fifty years. While all the other demands, as that for a separate Foreign Office and a non-union flag, have been directed against the sister kingdom of Sweden, this one is intended to remove the last evidence of the earlier union with Denmark. The leaders of the "Landsmaal," or national tongue, called by its critics "paper tongue," claim that the true Norse spirit is hampered by being expressed through the inferior and foreign Danish, even when the latter limps under the name of Dano-Norwegian. At a meeting held recently in Christiania, Björnstjerne Björnson and Sophus Bugge addressed a large audience, representing different political tendencies, and exposed the weakness of many of the patriotic claims. Björnstjerne Björnson, the most frankly Norse of the four leading living Norwegian writers, while pressing the claims of Danish as the cultural language of Norway, at the same time warmly recommended the use of the existing dialects as dialects, especially in connection with fiction, to give local color. Prof. Bugge aptly characterized the whole movement when he said that it was the outcropping of a worn-out romantic enthusiasm for the past, of vague dreams of the glory of the Middle Ages, of a greater respect for the letter than the spirit, and of a faulty appre-

ciation of contemporary history and the realities of life.

THE PHILIPPINE JUGGLE.

The Expedition to the Philippines. By F. D. Millet, Special Correspondent of *Harper's Weekly*, and of the *London Times*, etc. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers. 8vo, pp. 275.

Mr. Millet was already favorably known by his career as an artist and war correspondent, and more lately by his well-told and well-illustrated tour of the Danube from the Black Forest to the Black Sea; and his employment as correspondent of the *London Times* gave him, in the Philippines, exceptional advantages. The fruit of these is seen in his chapters on his excursion over the railway to Daguapan, which our troops have reached very lately, and his attendance at the opening of the Philippine Congress at Malolos. He writes from fullest sympathy with our officers and men in every phase of their arduous and embarrassing task. He went out with Gen. Merritt from San Francisco, and, after the few days' halt at Honolulu to coal (which he put to good use), went on with the headquarters to Manila. His stay did not extend long beyond the occupation of the city and the transfer of the Military Governorship to Gen. Otis, for he took ship for home before the 1st of October. His narrative, therefore, covers the original expedition of the army, the short campaign against the Spaniards, and the establishment by the insurgents of the investing lines about Manila, which was practically a siege as before, the garrison being changed from Spanish to American. For this period he seems to be a competent and candid guide. Both directly and incidentally, Mr. Millet gives us much interesting and useful knowledge of Luzon and its people; and the fifty reproductions of photographs, even the poorest of the snap-shots with the kodak, are full of instruction.

It is, of course, in its bearing on the military and governmental problems that the book has its serious interest. Some telling criticisms are made, both expressly and by implication, on the errors in fitting out the expedition, in the landing of the troops, and in adapting their physical discipline to the new conditions of climate and country; but we must confine our attention to the relations of the army to the insurgents, for the seeds of the subsequent collision with them and of the existing war were planted as soon as the expedition arrived in Manila Bay.

It will be remembered that Admiral Dewey's naval victory had been in the southern bight of the great bay opening to the west, where he had bombarded also the fortifications at the village of Cavité, and driven the Spaniards from them. These works were then occupied by Aguinaldo and his army of insurgents, and here was the harbor where our troops landed, and which became the base for operations against the city of Manila, lying in the northern bight of the bay, some twenty miles from Cavité by land, though not more than half that distance by water. Between the two places was a sandy beach bordered by a fringe of tropical trees, beyond which, again, was a plain becoming marshy and impracticable as one gets further from the shore. Deeper in the interior the country rises to the

mountains which are the backbone of the island. The topography decides the line of advance northward along the shore, on either side of the main road from Cavité to the city, called the Camino Real. Sluggish streams cross this route and empty into the bay. These, of course, were lines of defence, and were to some extent entrenched. The fleet could steam along, abreast of the infantry advance, and when the fort of San Antonio de Abad (defending the suburb on the bay) was reached, the heavy naval fire would either drive out the garrison or prepare for our infantry assault.

When Gen. Merritt arrived, not only did Aguinaldo hold Cavité, but Mr. Millet tells us that he had troops on all the principal roads leading out of Manila, and had "completely invested the town, from Caloocan on the north to Maytubig on the south" (p. 61). His forces were organized, and he had several generals in subordinate commands. He was, therefore, the commander in fact of an army similar in organization and in numbers to our own under Gen. Merritt. His troops were neatly uniformed in Spanish uniforms captured at Cavité, were armed with excellent rifles of recent patterns, and the photographs show a soldierly, martial appearance. Our first transports landed Gen. Anderson's brigade within the insurgents' post at Cavité. The second fleet landed Gen. Greene's at Tambo, behind the insurgents' investment lines south of Manila, and MacArthur's followed. The only troops then engaged with the Spaniards were Aguinaldo's, and, to attack Manila, Merritt must advance through the insurgent lines unless he were willing simply to support their attack.

With two such armies bent upon the common purpose of reducing the Spanish stronghold, the first step, an intelligent observer would say, must be a conference between the commanding officers. The part each is to play must be defined. A plan must be arranged and definitely settled, as at Sebastopol the English took the right and the French the left. There should be a commandant of the whole, if possible, as Washington was of the French and American forces at Yorktown. If that could not be arranged, there must at least be action under constant consultation and agreement between the chiefs, as between the English and French in the Crimea. The conduct of war is a matter of such terrible consequences, and the coöperation of armies of different nationalities is so complicated and delicate a business, that it would be about as bad to wage war without such full and constant understanding as it would be to let the brigade commanders make each a campaign of his own, without a common superior or mutual agreement. Such coöperation with a de-facto army, if frankly conducted, does not imply any diplomatic committal to the recognition of the government behind the army. But Mr. Millet confirms what was hardly credible as we got it in current news dispatches of last year, in saying that "no official notice was ever taken of Aguinaldo, although he repeatedly made urgent requests to be recognized as an ally, or at least to be notified of his acknowledged status." It is added that "he never called upon Gen. Merritt, and, although the latter passed through Bacoor, Aguinaldo's headquarters, they never met" (p. 61). Reflect upon it for a moment. Merritt landed his

army upon territory actually held by Aguinaldo, and went into camp under protection of the insurgent pickets and skirmish lines which held back the Spaniards from attacking the boats as they approached the shore. Not only had no previous invitation been sent to Aguinaldo to meet the American commander and make a mutual concert of action or a definite separation, but the course taken was to ignore his existence, and, in the necessary contact with his troops, to shoulder them aside, quietly if possible, and have no official intercourse with them even in doing so.

An organized army is so hard a fact in time of war that not even Mother Eddy's disciples could dissolve it into thin air by faith in its non-existence. When a movement toward Manila was to be made, Aguinaldo's men had to be got out of the way, for they held the line across the shore facing the Spaniards, and it would be awkward marching over them if they resisted it. How should it be done? They would obey no orders except from their own chief, with whom Gen. Merritt would not communicate. Mr. Millet explains it thus: "On the afternoon of the 28th [July], General Greene received a verbal message from General Merritt, suggesting that he juggle the insurgents out of part of their lines, always on his own responsibility, and without committing in any way the commanding general to any recognition of the native leaders, or opening up the prospect of an alliance" (p. 83). We are told that General Greene accomplished this very cleverly by politely inviting to an interview General Noriel, insurgent commander on their left, and persuading him of the desirability of putting in one of our effective batteries opposite the Spanish fort; and when room was made for the guns, two battalions of infantry went in also. Noriel had referred the matter to Aguinaldo, who consented on condition that General Greene gave a written receipt for the part of the lines. We are told that the latter sent to Aguinaldo "a carefully worded letter, stating that he had occupied a specified part of the line," though the author does not vouch for its text.

It is hard to see what benefit could come of such "juggling" more than by frank dealing. The advantage of a verbal arrangement was certainly not in freedom from misunderstanding and later recrimination. Writing is usually insisted on in such cases to prevent disputes afterward. Gen. Greene's dealing with Gen. Noriel was as really the United States recognizing the insurgent army as Merritt's with Aguinaldo would be. The Filipino seems to have been shrewd enough to get a writing at last, and, with this as the proof of some sort of a transaction, we must either stand by the honest revelation of the whole of it, or lie about it. Mr. Millet loyally concludes that "the insurgents were thus beaten at their own game," but it does not seem so clear who was beaten. We are often told that war justifies deceptions of the enemy, which are called *ruses de guerre*, but we do not recall any authority on the laws of war which approves practising them on your friends. On the other hand, history gives many instances in which insincere dealing with friends has made enemies.

Honesty in the matter would not seem to have been bad policy. The natural thing for Merritt to do, and the thing which his

training would probably have made most agreeable to him, would have been, immediately upon his arrival, to invite Aguinaldo to a conference, and to say to him: "In our war with Spain we seek to defeat and capture the Spanish army holding Manila. You have an army now investing the place. We have no directions to excite a revolution here, and if peace results from our military and naval operations here and elsewhere, it may be on the basis, so far as these islands are concerned, of leaving them as they were. We cannot pledge you anything in the future; but you command an army, and your purpose seems in harmony with ours. We can recognize you as commandant of an army in fact, and must let the future develop itself. We must either work together to enforce the surrender of Manila, or we must play at cross-purposes. Shall we work together on this basis?"

There can hardly be a doubt that such overtures would have been cordially met. No complications could have arisen at all comparable with those which came from the course actually pursued. The habit of coöperation and transparent dealing would have begotten confidence. If the treaty of Paris had turned out just as it did, the way would still have been prepared for the Filipinos to organize an autonomous government under our friendly protection, and amicable diplomacy would have had a promising field. We are, in this, carefully avoiding the supposition of any ultimate purpose different from that which our Government has avowed at each step in the progress of events. We are simply noting the gross blunder in methods, assuming the policy in general which our War Department indicated to its officers in the field.

Following Mr. Millet's narrative, things went from bad to worse. On the 7th of August Admiral Dewey and General Merritt sent a peremptory demand of surrender to the Spanish Governor-General, threatening an assault and a naval bombardment of the town if the demand was not complied with in forty-eight hours. Of this no notice was given to the Filipinos, who still occupied the whole line of investment except a regimental front on the shore. There was more "juggling," now with the Spaniards, resulting, as Mr. Millet intimates, in an understanding that, after a noisy show of defence, a surrender should be made to our troops, who were to answer for the exclusion of the Filipinos from any occupation of the walled town. This was much the smaller part of the city, being that portion south of the Pasig River which was originally included in a regular bastioned enceinte, as Vienna used to be before the fortifications were levelled and turned into the boulevard of the Ring-Strasse. On the 13th the noisy comedy came off. Our troops advanced along the shore, and the navy knocked the stones and mortar about on San Antonio de Abad, from which, to avoid accidents, the Spanish troops seem to have been early withdrawn.

As our troops went forward with a narrow front along the sands, their flank was, of course, wholly exposed to the insurgent army. A deplorable fiasco would have occurred if Aguinaldo had proved hostile. From a military point of view, the movement was conceivable only on the faith of the trustful friendship of the Filipinos. Though these had been contemptuously ignored, and in their exclusion from knowledge must

have suspected that they were looked upon as enemies—though they had grown restive, as the author tells us, and in many ways showed their not unreasonable irritation and distrust of our purposes—yet no allies acting upon an agreed countersign could have gone forward, side by side with our troops, more promptly than they did.

When Fort San Antonio was occupied by our own men, and the columns pressed forward towards the permanent fortifications of the inner city, the Spaniards hoisted a white flag, and a mixed naval and army commission entered to settle the capitulation. While these officers were in conference with the Spaniards, and two hours after the white flag had been shown at noon (p. 152), the firing was still continued along the whole line except that of the advance of Greene's brigade, say along three-quarters of the whole. The Spaniards again closed the gate where Greene had entered in a carriage sent for him, to join the commission, and now fired upon those who approached. The insurgents were pressing through the suburbs on east and north, MacArthur's brigade was following them or trying to elbow through them, and the conundrum was, How to make the Filipinos stop fighting without communicating with them or recognizing them?

At five o'clock a rough draft of the capitulation was hurriedly signed (p. 162). The Spanish flag was still flying on the north-west bastion, in sight of the foreign ships in the bay, but naval officers now hurried to it and replaced it by the American ensign. A half-regiment landed from a steamer with Gen. Merritt, as a headquarters guard. The Filipino puzzle seems to have been settled by having Greene's brigade, with arms a-port, push back the insurgents (whose leaders restrained them from fighting) and admit MacArthur's men, keeping out Aguinaldo's, who now learned again how they had been "juggled" as they stood looking foolishly up at the American rifles on the parapet. Our triumph was nearly complete. We had the inner city, and we had not recognized the insurgents, whom we were now ready to bid go about their business. When they visited the city, they were required to disarm, though the Spanish officers, under the capitulation, wore their side-arms.

But the insurgents still held the outer town and the surrounding villages. They established their picket lines and made stringent rules for entrance and exit. For their own support and in the name of the Revolutionary Government which Aguinaldo had proclaimed on June 23, they levied duties on supplies and merchandise entering the city, where prices rose to siege rates. They were constantly offering to come to some distinct understanding or to negotiate a *modus vivendi*, but the bugbear of recognition prevented our doing this. Meanwhile, the picket lines were nearly in contact, and each side sought to "juggle" the other out of some desirable post. Gen. Merritt left things in this condition when he was ordered to Paris to assist the negotiators there in settling the final disposal of the islands under the peace protocol which had been signed on the same day Manila surrendered.

Gen. Otis replaced Merritt in a task that was by no means an easy one. As is always the case, mere necessity brought about

modes of dealing with an army in Aguinaldo's position. Mr. Millet estimates the number of rifles, captured and other, which could be directly traced into Aguinaldo's hands, at 35,000, and he is confident the number of men in the insurgent army was about the same as the number of guns, though not all concentrated at Manila (p. 224). We are told that this army was constantly strengthened by recruits, and that the officers worked diligently in discipline, drill, and firing practice. Of the people he says that "one of their strongest characteristics is an implacable spirit of revenge, and that nothing is more actively provocative of this feeling than a real or imaginary slight or an act of injustice" (p. 61). What must we say, then, of a policy begun in most insulting slights which were continued daily and hourly through weeks and months, of constant wounds to pride, of petty advantages got by "juggling," of persistent refusal to confer or to make a candid comparison of views? The incurable mischief was evidently done before the Peace Commission was sent out to Manila. We wonder the armed collision did not begin sooner, and we do not wonder that Mr. Schurman found so rooted a distrust that it could not be overcome. To call the policy which dictated Merritt's course ignorant and childish would be flattery. The responsibility for it remains to be fixed.

If we keep steadily in mind the fact that Mr. Millet's narrative covers only the period from General Merritt's arrival till Otis assumed command, we shall find that it not only is consistent with such official documents as the President sent to Congress at its last session, but makes them clearly intelligible in the bright light of current events as they were seen by a keen observer. Prior to Merritt's landing, Consul Pratt at Singapore had been the means of putting Aguinaldo in communication with Admiral Dewey, and the latter had brought the insurgent leader to Manila, landed him at Cavité, given him arms and the means of calling his people into the field. The uprising openly declared itself the liberation of the Philippines, and its aim the overthrow of Spanish domination in the archipelago. With Dewey's encouragement, Aguinaldo got together an army, occupied Cavité, fought numerous engagements, drove the Spaniards from a dozen villages, captured two or three thousand Spanish troops, completely invested Manila and shut it off from all communication with the interior as Dewey did from the sea. Here was no squeamishness about coöperation or recognition.

General Anderson came with the first army detachment and continued the existing relations. He promptly sought from Aguinaldo "a definite understanding, which I hope will be advantageous to both," and asked for "your Excellency's advice and coöperation." His Quartermaster, in a letter asking for horses, buffaloes, and carts, which was written by Anderson's direction, said our troops were there "to expel the Spaniards and to give a good government to the whole people. . . . General Anderson wishes you to inform your people that we are here for their good." Under the initiative Admiral Dewey had taken, the army action was so far harmonious with that of the navy.

On the 25th of July Gen. Merritt entered the bay, and a new spirit at once became

evident. What Mr. Millet so clearly saw there, now followed. What were Merritt's instructions? The fact is told not only by Mr. Millet, but by Gen. Greene in the long official paper sent to the Senate. "Aguinaldo did not call upon Gen. Merritt on his arrival, and this enabled the latter to avoid any communication with him, either direct or indirect, until after Manila had been taken." Gen. Greene further tells us that "the day before the attack on Manila he [Aguinaldo] sent staff officers to the same general [Anderson], asking for our plans of attack so that their troops could enter Manila with us. The same request had previously been made to me by one of his brigade commanders, to which I replied that I was not authorized to give the information desired." Finally, we have the same authority for saying that after we were in possession of Manila, Gen. Merritt declared to a staff officer of the insurgent army that "even if the services of Aguinaldo's forces had been needed as allies, he should not have felt at liberty to accept them." We will not assume that here was a deliberate juggle with the word "allies."

It was not only after the occupation of Manila, but a week after, that the first direct communication between Gen. Merritt and Aguinaldo took place. The Filipinos held the water-works, and the scarcity of water in the city made some arrangement necessary. Without naming Aguinaldo, Gen. Merritt on the 20th of August addressed a letter to "The Commanding General of the Philippine forces," in reply to a memorandum Aguinaldo had sent to Gen. Anderson suggesting arrangements to relieve the strained situation. Again the mischief of informal communication became apparent, as Gen. Merritt insists upon an oral agreement with staff officers of the Filipinos, in which he is clear as to what he demands, but vague as to the conditions on the other side, and the whole of which, Aguinaldo asserts, were to be distinctly reduced to writing before binding either party. Merritt, on the 24th, treats it as an agreement pure and simple to withdraw the Filipino forces from all the suburbs of the city, and says he "must insist upon the carrying out of this." He adds, "I am the more insistent in this particular because recent instructions from my home Government contemplate this course." Aguinaldo had already given proof of his good faith by allowing the water supply to be resumed, and his long letter of the 27th, which closes the correspondence, is dignified and conciliatory, and bears the marks of sincere conviction that he is in the right.

It is pitiful to be forced to the conclusion that the outline thus drawn will be that which history will confirm. The conscience of our people has groaned over the story of our dealings with the red Indians, in which the ablest and most experienced of our soldiers have borne concurrent testimony that their wars were uniformly provoked by exasperating wrongs. Another war is probably near its close, another chapter is added to a humiliating tale of incapacity to deal with weaker tribes of men. What has been done is now past praying for; but ought we not to enter upon the duty of giving to the Filipinos an opportunity of free development and real self-government, with a clear consciousness of the utter unwisdom of our dealings with them hitherto?

RECENT NOVELS.

A Confident To-morrow. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros.

The Etchingham Letters. By Sir Frederick Pollock and Ella Fuller Maitland. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Parson Kelly. By A. E. W. Mason and Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co.

Stalky & Co. By Rudyard Kipling. Doubleday & McClure Co.

On Trial. By Zack. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Ridan the Devil, and Other Tales. By Louis Becke. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Little Novels of Italy. By Maurice Hewlett. The Macmillan Co.

The Powers at Play. By Bliss Perry. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Silent Singer. By Clara Morris. Brentano's.

In "A Confident To-morrow" Mr. Matthews brings a young gentleman from Kansas to New York, armed for conquering fortune with a novel in manuscript. This Mr. Sartain is not imprudent, for he has secured in advance a salaried position in a publishing house, thus providing against hunger and heartrendings while his novel is circulating among the "readers." His career is not meant to resemble that of a rocket. He has enough ability to get on, and even that modest provision is not ostentatiously displayed. He temperately treads the middle way. The worst thing he does is to answer an invitation on a postal-card, and the best to fall in love with a pretty girl of excellent character. He has an unconquerable shyness, which diminishes his conversational efficiency and also deprives him of distinction as the personage of a longish novel.

But Mr. Matthews's design is not so much to paint individuals as to compose a characteristic New York group, and present through them some aspects of the city's life. Thus he introduces Mr. Sartain at once into the home of a successful novelist, associating him intimately with art and letters. Mr. Vivian's home is the scene of Mr. Sartain's social experiences, and these are quite within the range of common knowledge. He is uniformly dull at five o'clock teas, and at first a little awkward at dinner. The object of particularizing the menu of the Vivians' Thanksgiving dinner, we confess escapes us; a generalization about this feast which opened Sartain's eyes to observe the beauty of "simplicity and luxury," would seem to us sufficient. A jaded eye might have questioned the perfect taste of "a mould of fancy ice cream, representing a hen sitting upon a nest of spun-sugar," but the feeling for gastronomy and aesthetics is otherwise so fine that it is perhaps finical to challenge the hen. The chapters descriptive of Sartain's venture in the editing of a weekly magazine give a side of life not familiar to the public, and one with which the author is most competent to deal adequately. Mr. Matthews rather insists on the modernity of the persons who surround Sartain—a quality which hardly needs emphasis, since they are mostly young and could not very well help being modern. Mr. Matthews encourages the cheerful sentiment that there is no time like one's own time; but, to reflective per-

sons who look before and after, this particular work is not convincing. We all know something of our own time superficially, but its meaning, its heart, what it stands for in human history, is perhaps more deeply hidden from the general than that of times seen in perspective. It is for persons of intuition and acute perception to penetrate and explain our own mystery, and we feel that if Mr. Matthews had gone deeper for proof of validity of his pleasant assumption, he might more completely have brought us all over to a state of blissful content with ourselves.

Several popular and not altogether arbitrary prejudices are dispelled in 'The Etchingham Letters.' Almost every one shirks fiction in epistolary form, feeling that narrative will not be sustained and that characterization will be reduced to description. One cannot easily become interested in affairs to which attention is invited so obviously at second hand. Distaste for works of imagination written in collaboration is, with less reason, almost as pronounced. That two minds will not work as one is a foregone conclusion, and, with unity as the desideratum, one rejects the comfort of the thought that there are many ways in which two minds work better than one. Perhaps the authors of 'The Etchingham Letters' were not much concerned about public approval, and have unconsciously succeeded in those directions where failure seemed foredoomed. At all events, in the correspondence between Sir Richard Etchingham and his sister a domestic drama is carried along smoothly, and the characterization is extremely lively. They are ideal collaborators, because they are bound together by affection, by perfect understanding, and by congenial tastes. Their intellectual curiosities and interests are keen and comprehensive, and the ironical humor which runs through their confidential discussion of the rest of the family and their intimates is similarly happy, savored with a subtle distinction of sex. To speak of the little book justly would be to praise it unstintedly, and that praise may be comprehended in the comment that it is one of those infrequent contributions to "light literature" which are delightfully light and unquestionably literature.

'Parson Kelly' is another example of successful collaboration; also a good tale, swaggering somewhat saucily, yet with excellent credentials, into the exclusive company of refined letters. Among the pleasant paths long trod by Mr. Lang for the entertainment of the public, none is more emphatically his own than are those leading up to and away from and round about the expulsion of the Stuarts. For Jacobite plots and plotters he has the scent of the hound for the hare, though he does not always pursue with the intention of destroying. Mr. Mason's graceful reproduction of an eighteenth-century literary manner has quite recently attracted notice in a tale entitled 'The Watchers'; so to narrate the fortunes of gentlemen who answered to almost any name except their family one, who crossed the Channel to and fro without passports, preferring the night to the day, who had no defined occupation and no visible means of support, all about the year 1720, it would be hard to find persons better fitted than Mr. Lang and Mr. Mason. Being Irishmen, 'Parson Kelly' and Nicholas Wogan show more zeal and fervor than discretion in the ser-

vice of their king, and the parson's heart so often controls his head that Wogan is kept very busy retrieving his friend's errors by use both of his wits and his sword. They are more heroes of drawing-room intrigue than of out-door adventure, and conduct their important business with great elegance and gallantry, conspicuous figures moving in a charmed circle of satin petticoats and link boys, lace ruffles and ready rapiers. Lady Oxford (whose proceedings are not historical) is a fascinating great lady, wicked but not weak, and with the courage and wit to hold her own against the dreadful tongue of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu. Without any private honor, without even good repute, power was still possible to great ladies in the gay society of that cynical age, but none so high-placed, so supreme, as to survive the breath of ridicule. When Lady Oxford knows that her world is just going to laugh at her, the nerve with which she challenges that laugh, the effrontery, the tact, the unscrupulousness are magnificent. It would have been better art, we think, if not better morals, to have left her here, saved for the moment by her own daring and the parson's delicate honor. The last chapter is only a tag, a sop for those who crave definite endings, and especially a tribute to that sentiment, so illogical yet so common to imperfect humanity, that glows virtuously on beholding the degradation of the sinner who has enjoyed a long run of prosperity.

Mr. Kipling has never appeared to less advantage than in 'Stalky & Co.' Unless they are ingenious and funny, the pranks of schoolboys do not make interesting reading for mature people, and a little even of the frolic spirit goes a long way. For youngsters the pranks of such boys as Stalky & Co. make very bad reading. Boys are sometimes mischievous, impudent, and unruly to a degree that invites repression, and we have never known one so devoid of these qualities that it could be necessary to encourage their growth by providing him with printed models. 'Stalky & Co.' may have grown up to become the modest heroes described in the last chapter of their history; but when writing that, Mr. Kipling kept in mind half of what goes before, we think he forgot that the wisdom of experience has been concentrated in a proverb, "The boy is father of the man."

The lady who, assuming the name "Zack," proclaimed her depressing views of life a year or so ago in a volume of short stories, appears in the meantime to have sunk into deep despair. 'On Trial' is a most discouraging work. The study of ignoble character, the representation of pits which a congenital liar and coward may dig for himself, and the process by which he involves in his ignominy the confiding and innocent, are not cheerful themes for fiction, but they are legitimate. When presented impersonally, objectively, in the Greek dramatic fashion, an elevating, exciting impression of great tragic force can hardly fail to be conveyed. From contemplation of the spectacle we spontaneously appreciate its awfulness, even hopelessness. But this method of standing aloof from your subject, putting trust for its life chiefly in its intrinsic vitality, is not Zack's method. To the moral cowardice of Dan Pigott, the generous weakness of Phoebe, the crude villainy of Silas Trustgore, she deliberately adds her own very emotional nature and

very excitable style. Her personality so infects her people that at last the thoughtful reader comes to disbelieve in Dan and Phoebe, to discredit the incidents, and to resent having had his feelings harassed and his intelligence imposed on. Such fiction as 'On Trial' is neither useful nor beautiful, but it has a sort of hysterical idealism which is at once responded to by sentimental, emotional readers, and thus gets a reputation for truth to life, even for literary skill, which is not deserved.

The South Sea tales and sketches in Mr. Louis Becke's volume entitled 'Ridan the Devil' are as entertaining and even instructive as are his earlier pictures of similar scenes and people. Like Mr. Kipling, he is great in the art of the single, vivid, complete impression. He characterizes with a phrase, and by a single incident throws a search-light on the history of a fairly long life. He is very quick, very sure, always interesting, and sometimes surprisingly funny. 'Bilger of Sydney' and 'Denison' enjoying his berth ashore are not figures for refined comedy, but any one who takes a tolerant view of human nature may easily laugh with them till he cries. All the work, indeed, is excellent, and that in spite of odd grammar and uncouth phrases which we take to be the popular grammar and expression of Australia and the South Seas.

The infinite scope and variety of our fiction are immediately striking when one takes up Mr. Maurice Hewlett after Mr. Louis Becke. Extremes of natural ability, of education, of outlook meet on a common ground. Mr. Becke is the man of action and observation in fiction, and Mr. Hewlett the man of letters and contemplation. They come together in admiration for the exceptional and fine qualities of human nature, and in generous understanding of those which are more common but less inspiring. In the very modern form of ironical humor, sometimes gay and sometimes grim, they are as one man. Mr. Hewlett's 'Little Novels of Italy' are tales of times when love and murder and Art flourished greatly, when life had but a precarious tenure, yet ran its course gayly unhampered by morals. He has a wealth of knowledge of those times and a diction of wonderful fluency and color, so that one sees and feels more the outward garment than the inward substance. The identification of the author with his period is particularly interesting. The 'Middle Ages, or rather the picturesque and sensuous aspects of the Middle Ages, have almost extinguished the modern. Mr. Hewlett appears not as one who trod the austere way of Dante or Savonarola, but as an accomplished associate of Boccaccio's merry company.

The tales in the volume entitled 'The Powers at Play' are all readable, but none is more than that. The Powers play in somewhat perfunctory fashion, and, to escape being fatigued by the spectacle, one must always go out between acts. The most amusing incident is found in 'The Fish-warden of Madrid,' and the most interesting idea in 'Jepson's Third Adjective.' In the opening tale the vacillating young doctor is kept up to 'His Word of Honor' by an accident. Morally, he appears to be about as insecure as if he had broken his pledge. Technically, the tales have the assurance of a practised hand.

The stories included under the title 'A Silent Singer' have very little technical merit, but, on the other hand, much sympathy

with life, especially with life that for one reason or another has not been prosperous or very happy. It is difficult to read the book without mental reference to the author's fame as an actress, and it is almost impossible not to feel that, had she chosen letters, she would have been equally famous as a writer. Besides sympathy, she has a clear vision, both for character and for causes, and, in spite of a leaning towards the sentimental view, she holds her emotions pretty well in hand. We have many better writers than Clara Morris, but few of them have written better tales.

A Century of Science, and Other Essays. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 477.

Agreeable and profitable reading is assured in any book by Mr. Fiske. The fourteen essays composing this latest volume may not make quite so stimulating a draught as some of his other writings, but what they lack in this they make up in their sparkling flow of information and refreshing good sense. The longest and, perhaps, the most interesting, is a eulogy of the historian Parkman, exhibiting the impressive picture of his life and labors. The two next in order of length are, with one exception, the slenderest in matter. One of these, an account of "Some Cranks and their Crotchets," makes one laugh a little, but the most irresistible things in it are quoted from De Morgan's incomparable "Budget of Paradoxes." The other is a refutation, neat as a proposition in Euclid, of the theory that Bacon wrote Shakspeare. It is only a pity that the object of attack does not offer sufficient resistance to allow of much strength being put forth against it. Less courteous is a brief insession upon the Rev. Joseph Cook. Three of the remaining essays deal largely with the author's reminiscences. In an account of "Cambridge as a Village and as a City," it is the ancient history that is the most curious. There is little about the aspect of the modern village before its incorporation in 1846, since Mr. Fiske did not see it until fourteen years after that event, when its sweet childish ruralness had given place to an ungraceful hobbledehoy suburbanity. There are two obituary notices of the author's friends, Edward Augustus Freeman and Edward L. Youmans, the latter of autobiographical, as well as other, interest. In a discussion of the arbitration treaty we note that as lately as 1897 Mr. Fiske dreamed that our proud and successful rejection of a standing army might stand as an example that Europe must, in course of time, emulate. So it is that each step toward knowledge of ourselves consists in the dissipation of some illusion.

The author evidently attaches considerable importance to his paper on "The Part Played by Infancy in the Evolution of Man," and in his intimate dedicatory epistle to Prof. Thomas Sergeant Perry he properly reclaims for himself the title to the authorship of the theory that the prolonged period of infancy of men is the cause of the persistence of family relations and so of human society. The objection that man's infancy is not, in fact, particularly prolonged seems never to have received from Mr. Fiske an adequate reply.

An essay on "The Scope and Purport of Evolution" is a protest against the assumption that that doctrine is unfavorable to be-

lief in immortality and in God. Here Mr. Fiske is not at his best. Instead of first endeavoring fully and fairly to state wherein lies the persuasiveness of the line of thought against which he argues, but which has deeply impressed a good half of the thinking men of our generation, he pitches upon a vague and shambling sentence of a German professor, as if showing inexactitude in that could serve to prove there was no justice in the thought behind that awkward mouth-piece. Moreover, instead of considering the natural tendencies of evolutionary philosophy, as such, he limits himself to Spencer's special doctrine, which makes the principle of the conservation of energy the root of all the phenomena of the universe. Now what this results in is a virtual splitting of the universe into two uninteracting departments of matter and of mind, and such a breach of continuity cannot satisfy men long, since it ignores the requirements of the logic of this kind of reasoning.

The strongest of the papers is that which gives its title to the book. This is intended to show that the nineteenth century has been intellectually the greatest of all ages, that the idea of evolution is the greatest product of this greatest age, and that Herbert Spencer is the greatest exponent of this greatest of ideas. Most readers will be ready enough to agree that the trick of inquiring concerning each generic phenomenon how it came about or could have come about, is, on the whole, the most cunning lesson that the nineteenth-century animal has learned. Many among our reading millions innocently suppose that Herbert Spencer invented evolutionary philosophy. They do not realize that what probably first magnetized the youthful Aristotle from a student of medicine into a student of the cosmos was the influence of the strong current of evolutionary thought that had been set up in his environment by Democritus—thought that must have seemed as novel and as scientific to him as that of Spencer first seemed to the youthful Fiske, albeit there is reason to suspect that it was even then ancient lore.

Aristotle, by the way, though he always retained a high opinion of Democritus, did not persist in such unparalleled devotion and faith of discipleship as Fiske retains for Spencer. Some of Mr. Fiske's readers, however, while willing to accord a good measure of applause to Spencer's early discernment of how much slow growth might bring about, will nevertheless remark two circumstances which will limit their admiration of him. The first is, that his "Psychology" and "First Principles" were not the earliest expressions of evolutionary philosophy, nor even of evolutionary philosophy of a quasi-scientific cast, for the nebular hypothesis, which to any thinking man carries along with it a general doctrine of biological evolution, was given to the world by Kant in the year 1755. The second circumstance is, that Spencer is really not an evolutionist of a thorough-going kind, since he explicitly proclaims that, in his opinion, evolution is only one of two alternating processes, evolution and dissolution (the *γένεσις* and *φθορά* of Democritus), which he places on a par, while he further makes both those processes alike mere consequences of an eternal law that never came about at all, the "law of the persistence of force"; and against any attempt to drive investigation into the origin of that, he sets up a warn-

ing notice of no thoroughfare. That Spencer saw and felt some truths before almost anybody else, nobody can deny; but how far his writings have really influenced the deeper thinkers of the century, which seems to be the true point in question, is something Mr. Fiske still leaves in doubt. One brilliant disciple the Synthetic Philosophy can boast; but, after him, we can call to mind only men whom it were flattery to call mediocrities in philosophy. In short, the nineteenth century has brought us all to agree that nearly everything is to be accounted for by evolution; but the question as to how evolution is itself to be accounted for, or what rank it is to take among the uniformities of nature or the categories of philosophy, looks to-day less like finding a speedy settlement than it did soon after the publication of the "Origin of Species."

Point and Pillow Lace: A Short Account of Various Kinds, Ancient and Modern, and How to Recognize Them. By A. M. S. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Embroidery and Lace: Their Manufacture and History. By Ernest Lefébure. Translated and enlarged with Notes by Alan S. Cole. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Embroidery; or, The Craft of the Needle. By W. G. Paulson Townsend. New York: Truslove, Hanson & Combs. 1899.

The compiler of "Point and Pillow Lace" has very efficiently grappled with the task she set herself, and has produced a valuable guide to lovers of lace, excellently well illustrated by magnified photographs of each particular kind and of all details connected with her subject. A. M. S. was incited to undertake this manual by the extreme difficulty of identifying any particular piece in the more exhaustive "History of Lace" of Mrs. Palliser and other well-known experts, to whose studies she acknowledges her obligation in the production of this work.

The earliest pictorial record of lace is supposed to be in a picture of Quentin Matsys in the Church of St. Peter at Louvain of 1495. In England lace seems not to have come into use on frills and ruffs before Queen Elizabeth's reign. In the portraits of Mary Tudor in the National Portrait Gallery we note plain embroidered linen cuffs, while in the adjoining picture just after her time lace edging is used. It is in the work of the old masters that the history of lace is to be studied. It cannot be traced to more than three hundred years before our own time; and its production in France flagged considerably after the Revolution, during the period when simplicity in dress became the order of the day. The art of fine lace-making is again reviving in France, as also in Italy, where, through the efforts of the late Countess Marcello and the immediate patronage of Queen Margaret, Burano has a lace manufactory exactly following in its ancient traditions, and rose point is produced in Venice almost as fine as in ancient times. Besides the lace-workers in Venice, A. M. S. seems unaware that in Romagna the Countess Pasolini has also revived the industry on her estates for the advantage of the young peasant girls, who thus add to their slender dowries by making rose point and coarser laces when not occupied in field labor; and the Countess Brazza in Lombardy has even more hands occupied with this delicate work.

The great lace-making centres were Ve-

nice, Brussels, and Alençon. Although each had distinctive methods and styles of design and production, fashion often controlled the demand for certain kinds of lace to such an extent that it is not always easy, even for an adept, to judge certain specimens. Our authoress assures us that Spanish point and the so-called Greek lace and Point de Raguse are all of Venetian provenance, just as Point d'Angleterre is essentially from Brussels, notwithstanding its name. Venetian lace-workers brought to Alençon by Colbert under Louis XIV. taught their art in France with splendid results, since in time the French surpassed the skill of their masters, and for a century the lace produced at Alençon was by royal decree called Point de France. We have not space to follow our authoress through her series from mediæval drawn work or *punto tirato* to the humble machine-made lace of Nottingham. Her book will be useful especially to collectors who need knowledge and advice in the purchase of examples of the art.

We have a cheaper and revised edition of Ernest Lefébure's interesting history of 'Embroidery and Lace,' in which he demonstrates the important part woman's work has taken in decoration in the world's history, in the hope of inciting the new woman to devote her energies to these humbler walks of art. The additions include a more complete list and illustrations of different kinds of Irish lace, a further illustration of Greek embroidery (p. 46), and several emendations of the text. We observe, however, in a footnote (p. 240), for which Mr. Cole is responsible, that Ragusa is described as having been "one of the principal Adriatic ports belonging to the Venetian Republic." The Republic of Ragusa was always independent of Venice, while open to Venetian trade and influence. Its independence was terminated by French occupation under a treaty in the Napoleonic wars. The illustrations which profusely intersperse the text, though poor in execution, are very useful, and well chosen to give an idea of the historic pieces of embroidery described.

Mr. Townsend's little manual, with a preface by Walter Crane, is intended as a practical guide to students of the beautiful art of embroidery. It treats of design as well as of the diversity of methods, and abounds in examples of all kinds of embroidery, from ancient times down to our own. The illustrations are, unfortunately, of a cheap character, which falsify the values of the colors represented, and therefore fail to be as instructive as they should. The diagrams of stitches at the end are very intelligible, and will be found useful to beginners. Our author says but little that is really of practical use as to design; he justly warns his readers to avoid certain well-known pitfalls, such as representing flowers in a naturalistic manner and forcing light and shade; he advises on what lines nature should be studied by seeking to express the characteristics of the plant, flower, or fruit designed, its growth, the way the leaves spring from the stem, its buds in different stages of development. He insists on being truthful to facts, but on their being treated decoratively. His views are unquestionably correct, and he seems to have sought them at excellent sources, judging by the list of books he quotes as having helped him for this work. The difficulty of producing a good design remains, however, unsolved, and the examples of

modern work among the illustrations show how very far we are from understanding decoration, and how in less enlightened times, before so much was thought and written on art problems, personal taste and the natural desire to embellish objects of daily life produced a far more attractive result. The panel of Pomona, which serves as frontispiece, designed by Sir Edward Burne-Jones and William Morris and very inadequately represented here, is the only remarkable modern piece of work in the volume. We have always understood that the Royal School of Art Needlework excelled rather in its execution of work than in its designs.

A General Survey of American Literature.
By Mary Fisher. Chicago: McClurg & Co.

The author of this comely and well-printed book complains of Walt Whitman (p. 363) that "He is like a little second-hand country shop that calls itself the 'World's Bargain Store' and has the earth for its sign." It evidently does not occur to her that this description is not wholly inappropriate to her own book, the comprehensiveness of whose title is curiously in contrast with the mediocrity of its execution. This would perhaps be scarcely worth saying, were it not that it illustrates a serious peril of our widespread public-school system, namely, the constant multiplication of text-books proceeding from teachers who are themselves of crude and untrained mind. This book, which is a sample of many, is honest, sincere, courageous; but it is on the other hand immature, unequal, and goes little behind the ordinary sources of daily knowledge.

It has plainly undergone little revision, and makes mistakes which any common encyclopædia would have corrected—as, for instance, where it repeatedly spells Charles Brockden Brown's family name Browne (pp. 13, 17, 18, 138, 383); or says of James Russell Lowell that "The city of Lowell, Massachusetts, was named after one of his ancestors, and another was the founder of the Lowell Institute, Boston" (p. 312), although as a matter of fact it was his uncle whose name was given to the city, and his cousin who founded the Institute; the former event occurring when Lowell was a baby and the other after he had left college. So the Quinquennial Catalogue of Harvard University would have shown the writer that Jones Very, the poet, was never tutor in Greek at the Harvard Divinity School, but in the college itself; nor did he ever study theology in that school (p. 127). So her severest charges against Margaret Fuller (p. 139), that she did not recognize Wordsworth as a "new star," and that she "left no memorable word" about Goethe, are easily disposed of by her own published letter (Memoirs i., 167), in which she says of Wordsworth, in 1836, "I find my insight of this sublime poet perpetually deepening," and that passage in which Prof. Hedge, then unquestionably the best German scholar in America, says of her critique on Goethe, "As far as it goes, it is one of the best criticisms extant of Goethe" (Memoirs i., 96).

These are misstatements more serious than the misspelling of a man's name, and in regard to Charles Brockden Brown himself a little more knowledge of the literary history of the period would have shown the author that his novels, while still hampered

by the ghost of Mrs. Radcliffe, really laid the foundation for modern American realism in their description of Philadelphia society and manners, of the roving Indian, the newly arrived French musician, the gray cougar amidst his limestone caves. His novels had a distinct influence on the Godwin and Shelley circle in England, and Mrs. Shelley, in her novel of 'The Last Man,' founds her description of an epidemic on "the masterly delineations of the author of 'Henry Mervyn.'"

There are no doubt many other school text-books of no more value than this. If we select this for criticism, it is because it is one of the latest and most ambitious, both in preface and in title. A book calling itself 'A General Survey of American Literature' which does not mention Harriet Beecher Stowe, even in its index, or quote a line of Emerson's poetry, must be regarded as self-condemned in advance.

Botanizing: A Guide to Field Collecting and Herbarium Work. By William Whitman Bailey, A.M., Professor of Botany in Brown University. Providence: Preston & Rounds Co. 1899.

This is an honest and successful attempt to attract amateurs to the delightful study of plants in forests, fields, and waters. The endeavor is made to show the casual as well as the expert collector that, by the employment of a few simple appliances and by the exercise of a certain amount of patience, it is possible to accumulate at small cost in spring and summer a wealth of material for fascinating investigation during the winter months (which here extend from November through April). Prof. Bailey believes with Charles Darwin, that "if you catch quite a beginner and want to give him a taste of botany," you must "tell him to make a perfect list of some little field or wood." The taste of botany acquired in this manner speedily becomes a taste for botany, and yields the refreshment to the tired brain of the worker in other fields that was so often curative in the cases of John Stuart Mill, John Ruskin, and a host of other busiest thinkers.

Of late there has been a feeling in some circles that botany consists largely in the acquisition of materials for the exercise of what is known as nomenclature—a device for attaching personal names to helpless plants; and it has been further felt that, if the supply of personal names to be commemorated should outrun the supply of plants, it would be necessary to reshuffle the cards and name the species all over again. Fortunately, there has been a very large number of students who have preferred to look upon plants not so much as things to be named as things to be studied, and there have been many diligent observers who have taken up the task of asking all sorts of searching questions of the plants themselves, such as: How did you happen to settle here? Who were your ancestors? Are your relations to your neighbors at present agreeable? What are you good for? and, Where do you think of going next? The answers to such questions are given by the plants, sometimes rather vaguely, and oftentimes very clearly. The amount of information which has been acquired in this way concerning the structure, the habits, the uses, the diseases, and the probable origin of plants, is now rea-

sonably large, and in its printed form is accessible in numerous works. Some of our very latest text-books are filled with these answers stated in a charming way. Profs. Atkinson, Barnes, Coulter, and a good many others in our country have restated the answers in attractive form, and numerous local clubs are searching in a quiet manner for wider information by putting all the questions more specifically in "some little field or wood."

To all beginners and all experts who are to ask these questions, Prof. Bailey's book is a convenient aid. But it is more than this: it is filled with a great amount of wise advice as to the gardens and museums, private and public, and especially the herbaria, the most useful of all. The range of collecting is very wide, comprising everything from fossils to seaweeds. Many of our readers have doubtless fallen in with some of Prof. Bailey's occasional poems,

and have noted their good taste and high literary excellence. Good taste and literary excellence characterize the present volume of prose.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechler.
Castle, E. The Light of Scarthey. F. A. Stokes Co.
Devereux, Mrs. R. Side Lights on South Africa. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.75.
Dodge, H. N. Christus Victor: A Student's Revelation. Putnam's.

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